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some of the settled natives on the sea coasts, and is taught in the schools, as well as used in places of worship.

The Arabian exportation of coffee may be estimated at twelve millions five hundred and fifty thousand weight. The European companies take off a million and a half; the Suez fleet six millions and a half; the Persians three millions and a half; Indostan, the Maldives, and the Arabian colonies on the coast of Africa, 50,000; and the caravans a million. The coffee purchased by the Europeans and caravans is the best that can be procured. And here we cannot omit to mention, that the roving Arabs raise a contribution on the caravans: those which travel from Damar to Mecca procure an uninterrupted journey for the consideration of an hundred and fifty thousand livres, to which the Grand Seignior is subjected.

Mocha is supplied by Abyssinia with musk, sheep, elephants teeth, and slaves; by the eastern coast of Africa, with gold, amber, ivory, and slaves; by the Persian Gulph with corn and tobacco; by Surat, with linens; by Pondicherry and Bombay with copper, lead and iron, carried thither from Europe; and by Malabar with rice, ginger, and other articles. None of these branches of trade, however, thus carried on at Mocha, can be said to be under the management of the natives; the warehouses are occupied and regulated by the Banians of Surat or Guzaret.

To the port of Iodda (which is situated near the centre of the Gulph of Arabia, about 20 leagues from Mecca, and where the Grand Seignior and the xeriff of Mecca share the authority and revenues between them) Surat sends annually three ships, laden with silks, cotton, linens, shawls, &c.

SECTION V.

Religion of the Arabs. Prevalence of imposture and superstition. Tenets and ceremonies. Description of the pilgrimage to the temple of Mecca.

WITH respect to the religion of the ancient Arabs, some of them had more enlightened notions of the Deity than others; so that their worship was proportioned to their knowledge.

The celebrated Dr. Wells observes, "Christianity was taught here by St. Paul and his disciples; so that it received the light of the gospel very early; but, in many parts it was much clouded, if not totally eclipsed long before the grand impostor Mahomet, their countryman, made his appearance; and upon their being subdued by the Turks, they embraced his religion. But, in more ancient days, they were idolaters: hence Alexander the Great was induced to attempt the conquest of them, that he might be worshipped by them as a deity; for though great numbers had an exalted idea of one all-ruling omniscient and omnipresent Being, yet many had other deities."

Many of the modern Arabs carry about with them a paragraph of the koran, which they place upon their breasts, or sew under their caps, to prevent fascination; so addicted are they to superstition.

They have a great veneration for the Marabbats, who are deemed saints, and are persons of a rigid and austere life, continually employing themselves either in counting over their beads, or else in prayer and meditation.

So insatuated were these people in favour of Mahomet, that, on his death, they would not suffer the dead body of the impostor to be interred, till Abubeker, the succeeding caliph, produced several passages from the koran, convincing the deluded multitude, that, according to the nature of things, Mahomet must be really and absolutely dead.

The four fundamental points of religious practice required by the koran are, prayer, giving of alms, fasting, and making a pilgrimage to Mecca.

There is purification performed by rubbing, and

which is enjoined in the fiftieth chapter of the koran. It is called Al Tayamon, denoting properly the action of taking any thing from the surface, as fine sand from the surface of the earth; whence the parts of the body are sometimes rubbed with fine sand, instead of being washed with water. The words of the koran are, "If ye be sick, or on a journey; or if ye have touched women, and ye find no water, take fine clean sand, and rub yourselves therewith."

Besides these purifying ceremonies, there is the ceremony of circumcision; which, though not directly required in the koran, is yet held by the Mahometans to have been originally of Divine institution, and is exercised on children as soon as they are able to pronounce the profession of their faith.

It is a maxim, too, with the mussulmen, that as combing the hair, paring the nails, and plucking out the hairs of the arm-pits, are all points of cleanliness, they are essentially necessary to internal purification; and these therefore are looked upon as indispensable duties.

Every strict and conscientious mussulman performs public prayer five times a day, in consequence of the Divine command pretended to have been given to Mahomet for that purpose: this he does either in a mosque or in some other place that is clean, after a prescribed form, and with a certain number of praises or ejaculations.

The mussulmen of Mecca, when in a mosque, must, when they pray, turn their faces towards the temple of Mecca.

The Mahometans do not attend divine service in elegant apparel, but dress themselves only with a becoming and consistent decency; and are, for the most part, predestinarians.

Of the article of predestination the impostor Mahomet made a very political use, especially at the battle of Ohod, in which he was repulsed by the Coraischites. He calmed the minds of his party after their defeat, by representing to them, that the time of every man's death is decreed and predetermined by God; and that, therefore, those who fell in the battle of Ohod could not possibly have lived had they staid at home: for the inevitable hour of their dissolution was arrived.

There is annually a most numerous and solemn pilgrimage of the Mahometans to the Masjad-Al-Haran, or Sacred Temple of Mecca; which pilgrimage was instituted by Mahomet.

To this holy temple, in the ancient city of Mecca, a prodigious concourse of people resort. The temple stands in the center of the town, and hath a famous caaba, or square structure, peculiarly hallowed and set apart for worship: its door is of silver, and a golden spout carries off the water from the roof. It is 24 cubits in length, 23 in breadth, and 27 in height. On the north side, within a semicircular inclosure, is a celebrated white stone, said to be the sepulchre of Ishmael, which reserves the water that falls from the golden spout. The caaba has a double roof, supported within by octangular pillars, between which hang silver lamps: the outside is covered with rich black damask, adorned with an embroidered band of gold, which is changed every year, being provided by the Grand Seignior. Just without the inclosure, on the south, north, and west sides of the caaba, are three buildings, in which three particular sects assemble to perform their devotions.

To this antique and celebrated edifice the pilgrims, in prodigious numbers, annually resort, when there is a fair held for all sorts of merchandize; people, in crowds, from different nations, assembling, to the amount generally of not less than 20,000, at which time even the very vaults of mosques, and the caves of neighbouring mountains, are stored with rich commodities.

It must be observed, that the holy temple is opened four times in the year; but it is at the solemn feast of the Bayram, or Easter, when the greatest multitude assemble, who purchase relics of the old black damask covering,

covering, previous to its being succeeded by a new one from the Grand Seignior.

The pilgrims bound to Mecca commonly wear a sort of black cloak, which is fastened about the neck with a long hoop, and hangs loose behind. As soon as they have got into the city, they proceed to the holy temple, and walk round it several times, the three first in a very quick pace, to manifest their readiness to fight for the true worship of God.

From the mountain of Mina the priests deliver their pious harangues, and afterwards in the vale make fresh sacrifices of sheep, the flesh of which is distributed among the poor.

Thevenot asserts, that when he was in this part of the globe, upwards of 6000 persons belonging to one caravan died in the road between Cairo and Mecca, by the hot winds, and other calamities; and that the effects of such as die devolve to the priests.

As the northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws residing amongst them, they receive considerable gratuities from the Grand Seignior, for protecting the pilgrims from being plundered by their countrymen.

Having had frequent occasion to mention the arch impostor Mahomet, we shall now present our readers with an account of the life of that distinguished hypocrite; which we shall conclude with the history of the caliphs his successors; and then proceed to a description of such of the cities of Arabia as are worthy attention.

SECTION VI.

Memoirs of the Grand Impostor Mahomet, from his Birth to his Death.

THAT singular character Mahomet, or Mahomed, as styled by the Arabians, was born at Mecca, in the sixth century, in the reign of Justinian XI. emperor of Constantinople. Mahomet, though illiterate, and of mean birth, possessed a most shrewd understanding. He was left an orphan at about eight years of age, and Abuteleb, his uncle, took him under his care. Till the age of twenty he lived with his uncle, who was a factor, and afterwards entered into the service of a wealthy merchant, who dying, Mahomet made his addresses to Cadiga his widow, and married her.

During the time he was in the service of his uncle, Mahomet travelled into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, where he made particular observations on the great variety of religious sects, whose antipathy against each other seemed inveterate, at the same time that, in many points, the majority of them evidently concurred.

He continued his commercial connections for some years with great success after his marriage with Cadiga, but at the same time was forming a project of instituting a new system of religion, more general than any which had hitherto been established.

As Mahomet well knew the genius of his countrymen, he entertained the most sanguine hopes of success. He was aware that the Arabians were fond of novelty, and that they were addicted to illusions and enthusiasm.

He was powerfully aided in his grand design by Sergius, a monk, who, being of loose morals, had relinquished his cloister and profession, and was a servant under Cadiga, at the time that Mahomet married her. This monk was exceedingly well calculated, by his erudition, to supply the defects of his illiterate master. When the latter had maturely weighed the chief articles of the worship he intended to establish, he made a beginning in his own family; and, sensible that no religion would be looked upon as true without some sanction, his first step was to make his wife Cadiga believe, that he had an intimate correspondence with heaven.

In order to bring this about, he made an artful use of an infirmity to which he was subject, viz. the epilepsy. Whenever he was attacked with fits, he used to caution Cadiga not to form any erroneous opinion of the convulsive state in which she saw him; for that, so far from

being a calamity, it was a blessing from heaven: that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by the Divine Being, and during which he received instructions from him; which instructions he was to make public to the sons of men.

His wife, either really believing, or affecting to believe, this curious story, propagated a report that her husband was inspired; and the impostor living very abstemiously, acquired a character for superior sanctity throughout his neighbourhood. The vulgar implicitly believed that he really held converse with the Almighty, and they looked upon his epileptic fits as an incontestible evidence of his inspiration. In a little time Mahomet boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world to teach his will, and to compel mankind to pay obedience to it.

His disciples rapidly increasing, the magistrates of Mecca thought it highly expedient to exercise their authority on this occasion, and signified a design of bringing Mahomet before them. The latter, however, being soon apprized of their intention, made his escape in the night, accompanied by many of his deluded people, to whom he made very eloquent and pathetic harangues, touching the obstacles raised by the wiles of Satan, to the propagation of those tenets that had been revealed to him.

The ignorant people, captivated with the force of his language, devoted themselves entirely to his will, with offers of sacrificing their all in defence of him and his doctrine.

Mahomet, therefore, finding himself very formidable, and secure in the attachment of the soldiery as well as others, meditated an attack upon Mecca. His followers approved of his design, and accordingly he sent forth a considerable force under the command of one Hamza, an uncle of his, and whom he thought worthy of his confidence, in consideration of the zeal the latter had shewn for his doctrine. Hamza, who, to the blindest zeal, joined the most consummate natural bravery, marched at the head of a numerous body, and laid siege to Mecca, but was repulsed with considerable loss.

This repulse, however, was so far from disconcerting the besiegers, that it spurred them on to the resolution of a second attack. They improved themselves in the military art with the utmost assiduity.

They began their march for Mecca a second time, and on their road fell in with a caravan of Coraischites, whom they furiously attacked, defeated, plundered, and killed those who refused to embrace the doctrine of their leader, who then proceeded on to Mecca, and forced that city to surrender. But he was afterwards defeated at the battle of Ohod.

Abu Sofian, his implacable enemy, having put himself at the head of the Coraischites, caused his troops to advance towards Medina, and possessed himself of Mount Ohod, distant about four miles from that city. Mahomet made a most furious attack upon him, to drive him from his post, and, in the beginning of the action, obtained some small advantage; but being wounded, was obliged to quit the field. His followers finding their leader had deserted them, were struck with a general panic, and a terrible slaughter ensued, the victors perpetrating the most horrid cruelties on the vanquished. Mahomet, however, had recourse to his delusive arts to silence the complaints of his insatiable adherents, who reassuming their arms, obtained important conquests over their opponents, so that the Impostor, encouraged thereby, turned his force against the Jews, seized several of their towns, and, amongst others, Kaibar, one of the strongest; but after that, had like to have met with his death. Having taken up his lodgings at the house of one of the principal citizens, whose name was Hareth, among other things a poisoned shoulder of mutton was served up at table, of which he eat, and was soon taken ill. Proper remedies were, however, applied, and his life preserved, though the poison was never totally eradicated. Who committed this atrocious offence nobody then knew. However,

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ever, after his death it was discovered that Zainab, daughter of Hareth, had given him the poison on this principle, that if he was the great prophet he pretended to be, the poison could have no effect on him.

Part of the poison lurking in his body, notwithstanding many remedies had been applied, he, at intervals, was much indisposed. This, however, did not prevent him from pursuing the victory of his arms. He marched against the Greeks, and lighted up the first spark of that fatal war which his followers so rigorously carried on for several centuries.

Mahomet delegated the command of this war to an intrepid general, named Kaled Walid, who, after a repulse at first from the enemy, attended with the loss of most of his officers, had recourse to the arts of his master, and thereby inspired his men with such an enthusiastic ardour, that they fell furiously upon the enemy, and obtained a complete victory.

After the above battle Mahomet went in pilgrimage to Mecca, attended by a vast concourse of Mussulmen. The pomp and magnificence he displayed in his journey, and the surreptitious shew of religion with which he visited the Caaba, made a great impression on the inhabitants of Mecca, and especially the Coraischites, numbers of whom embraced his religion. The example of these, however, did not seduce the rest of the Coraischite tribes. They, on the contrary, broke the truce that had been made, and gave Mahomet battle, but were totally defeated; and such as did not, in consequence of this defeat, embrace his religion, were massacred on the spot.

Mahomet then caused himself to be acknowledged sovereign of Mecca: and the beginning of the year following, which was the eighth of the Hegira, some few scattered diffidents, who had escaped the sword of the tyrant, contrived, with great judgement and diligence, to form a considerable party, and, as soon as they found themselves sufficiently formidable, took the field, ravaging many of those parts that had submitted to his power.

The tyrant, enraged at the insolence of this presumptuous faction, put himself at the head of his forces, and marched to give them battle. Accordingly a bloody engagement ensued, at a place called Honaim, in which the troops of Mahomet, though superior in number to the enemy, were vigorously repulsed; upon which, flying to the yielding ranks, and re-animating them with his personal courage, he rallied them, and obtained a most decisive victory.

Mahomet then caused himself to be acknowledged sovereign of all Arabia. He destroyed all the idols and monuments of paganism, and suffered no other religion to be professed but his own.

He now made a second pilgrimage to Mecca, considerably more solemn and magnificent than the first, and performed all the ceremonies with great appearance of devotion. He erected courts of justice, appointed proper officers, and constituted a pontiff or high priest. He no longer appeared the dreadful conqueror, but the mild legislator, and the Arabians were soon reconciled to his government.

Mahomet took a proper advantage of this general tranquillity, strengthened his armies, and exercised them himself; and the good policy of such precaution was soon apparent: for the Greeks, who ill brooked the disgrace they had suffered, resolved on revenge, and advanced to Balka, a city on the frontiers of Syria. Mahomet, at the head of 30,000 men, went to meet them: but the Greeks, alarmed at so numerous an army, thought proper to retreat; and the impostor spent the remainder of the year, which was the 10th of the Hegira, in revising the several laws he had made for the government of the state. He then made his third and last pilgrimage to Mecca, which far exceeded the two former in pomp and magnificence. Some of the most considerable persons in Arabia accompanied him; and his wives (for he had more than one) also attended him in stately litters, borne by camels.

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To inspire the people with the most awful veneration for his doctrine, and at the same time to evince to them that he was the supreme head as well in spirituals as temporals, he now performed the office of pontiff himself; preached in the temple, and concluded his harangue with the proposition of new regulations, which he afterwards published, touching the rites and ceremonies of the newly established religion.

He caused several camels to be slain, and offered as sacrifices, which festival was concluded by a general farewell that he took of the people. He now found his health much on the decline. The poison that he had swallowed some years before operated with greater violence than ever. He perceived that his dissolution was not far off.

On his return to Medina, his illness considerably increasing, he repaired to the house of Aiska, who was his favourite wife, and there died at the age of sixty-three. He was buried at Medina; so that the opinion which some have maintained, that his body was placed in a sepulchre at Mecca, is entirely erroneous.

Mahomet, with the advantage of an engaging countenance, and well proportioned figure, possessed a most comprehensive genius, and a firmness of soul ever capable of combating the greatest difficulties. Stedfast and resolute in the pursuit of the most amazing projects, he was possessed of the means of procuring success. His deep penetration, his excellent judgement, his never-failing courage, his unwearied perseverance, and refined sagacity, supported and directed him to a state of prosperity and triumph, in almost every thing he undertook. He made no scruple of acknowledging that he had not received any education, though principal author of the Koran. He was, however, one of the finest and most eloquent speakers in the whole country. He had not only a very good memory and lively conception, but was of a cheerful and even temper. He could suit himself to all times, circumstances, and dispositions. He was as familiar with the nobility, as he was popular with the commonalty, and could lend an ear of real (or affected) commiseration to the supplications of the distressed.

It may not be unworthy of remark here, that after the decisive battle of Honaim, when Mahomet made a second pilgrimage to Mecca, a poet, who had severely lampooned him, solicited the honour of being introduced to him, that he might repeat some verses he had written in his praise; for the face of things was now considerably changed. The conqueror could not forget the severity with which he had been treated by the poet; to shew resentment, however, would have been a degradation of dignity; he therefore granted him permission to approach. The poet came trembling to his new sovereign, and on his knees imploring forgiveness for the rash freedom he had taken in his satires, began to pronounce his verses, being encouraged thereto by the mildness and complacency that sat on his countenance. The verses were so masterly, so graceful, pathetic, eulogical, and elegant, that Mahomet not only most freely and readily pardoned him, but presented him with a rich mantle from off his own back, and which he himself placed on the back of the poet. So singular and distinguished an honour immortalized Caab, (for such was the poet's name,) who wore it till his death, with all the exulting pride and ambition natural to a human being on so remarkable, so memorable, and so great an occasion.

As Mahomet died without male issue, and had not nominated any successor, different parties rose, claiming an exclusive right of appointing one. Abubeker, however, who had always been the friend of peace and good order, proposed two persons, Omar and Abou-Obeid, for their choice of one of them: but this proposition created still greater divisions, and the election remained undetermined, till Omar, to the astonishment of every person present, addressed himself to Abubeker, and kissing his hand, desired that he (Abubeker) would assume the sovereignty himself. The latter was accordingly

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cordingly chosen amidst the acclamations of the assembly: but he refused, from an inviolable veneration to the memory of his late master, to take on him the title of sovereign, chusing that of Caliph, signifying *successor*, which was afterwards the title of all who reigned over the Arabs.

Abubeker reigned only two years, during which time he made himself master of part of Syria.

On the death of Abubeker, Omar was elected caliph without opposition, having been nominated by his predecessor. This monarch completed the conquest of Syria, and marching his army into Egypt, reduced that country. He lost his life by assassination, the particulars of which are as follow. A native of Persia, named Firouz, refusing to embrace Mahometanism, a tax was levied upon him; upon which he made his complaints to the caliph, soliciting that the tax might be taken off, or at least retrenched, as he was incapable of paying it. "What trade do you follow?" said Omar. The man replied that he had three. "Very well (added the caliph) then you are taxed very moderately." Firouz, however, who possessed a most wicked vindictive soul, entered the mosque a few days afterwards while the caliph was there, and took an opportunity of stabbing him in three different parts of his body with a knife. Instantly the wretch was surrounded; but he defended himself with the bloody instrument, and stabbed thirteen others, seven of whom died in a few hours. Fresh efforts, however, were made to secure him; and the assassin at length discovering he should be overpowered, plunged the knife into his own bowels and expired.

On the death of Omar, Othman succeeded to the caliphship. He was also assassinated, as was likewise his successor Hali, who left two sons, on the eldest of whom the Arabians bestowed the crown.

Hassan, son and successor of Hali, after a reign of only about six months, abdicated his throne in favour of Moawiyah, who was the first of the dynasty of the Ommiyans, so called from Ommiyah, the head of that prince's family. As soon as this prince was firmly seated on the throne, he adopted measures to render the dignity of caliph hereditary, which had been before elective, and succeeded in his design. His crown descended to his son, and afterwards to the rest of his posterity.

That dynasty of princes maintained themselves with great glory for fourteen successions. The house of Ommiyah, however, was destroyed by the Abbassians, princes so denominated from their being descended from Abbas, uncle of Mahomet. They took up arms against the Ommiyans, under pretence of revenging the death of Hali, whom, they alledged, had been murdered by them, and Abul Abbas was accordingly proclaimed caliph.

Abdallah, uncle of Abul Abbas, caused an act of grace to be published, in the caliph's name, for all the Ommiyans who should appear before him, and take the oaths of allegiance to the new caliph. A day was fixed for the meeting of the chiefs or princes, and Abdallah attended them; but while he was preparing to tender the oaths, a party of soldiers, appointed for the purpose, drew up behind them, and destroyed them all on the spot, except one, who escaped, and fled to Spain. Immediately after this barbarous deed, the soldiers put to the sword a great number of Mussulmen, known to be devoted to the house of Ommiyah: and Abdallah having put an end to the slaughter, completed his bloody transactions with a most horrid entertainment.

The above infernal monster caused the bodies of the Ommiyans, who had been slaughtered by the soldiers, to be placed close to one another, and covered with boards, over which he ordered carpets to be laid; and upon this flooring, formed by dead carcases, he gave a sumptuous feast to the officers of the army. "Perhaps (said he) all of them may not be quite dead: in that case we shall have the happiness to hear them groan."

Such was the beginning of the reign of Abul Abbas, who, however, did not enjoy the throne long; for he

was seized with the small pox, died at the age of eighteen, and was succeeded by his brother, Abul Giaffer, surnamed Almanzor, or Victorious.

Almanzor built the city of Bagdad, which was the capital of the empire till the race of Abbas became extinct; on which account the Abbassians have been commonly called caliphs of Syria.

The Abbassians, who stiled themselves the true children of the house of Mahomet, possessed the diadem for more than 500 years, under 37 princes. During their reigns, part of their empire was at several times granted away; and the territories thus dismembered were erected into as many dynasties. Of these were the Thaherians, and the Soffarides, who reigned in Persia, Transoxiana, and Turkestan: as also the Tholanides and Aschidians, who ruled Egypt under the title of the sultans; though at the same time they acknowledged the supremacy of the caliph of Bagdad. The Aschidians were succeeded by the Fatimites, who, pretending to be the true and rightful successors of Mahomet, as descended from Hali by Fatima, assumed the title of caliph in Egypt.

After the extinction of the Fatimites, a new dynasty arose, called Gengiskanians, from Gengiskan, their founder. This prince, who became highly renowned on account of the rapidity of his exploits, put himself at the head of an army of Moguls and Tartars, and soon conquered an immense track of land. His successors, who inherited his bravery, as well as his antipathy to Mussulmen, added to their crown almost all the states which had been seized by the princes of the other dynasties, and at length made themselves masters of Bagdad, massacred the caliph and his children, and, by their deaths, put a final end to the illustrious house of Abbas, which had sat on the throne for upwards of 500 years. At this period the history of the caliphs properly concludes; for we cannot include, among the caliphs, Ahmed, who was three years afterwards proclaimed caliph by the Mamalukes of Egypt, under the name of Mostanzer Billah. They called him the son of Daher Ben Nasser, the Abbassian; and Bibars, who was then sultan of the Mamalukes, caused him to be recognized in Egypt; so that a second dynasty of Abbassians was formed, if the name of dynasty can be allowed to a race of princes who were only looked upon merely as the heads of the church. This pretended dynasty subsisted till the end of the reign of the Mamalukes, in the 923d year of the Hegira, and 1517th of the Christian æra; when Selim the First, emperor of the Ottoman Turks, annexed all Egypt to his empire.

SECTION VII.

Description of the chief Cities of Arabia, and of the Mosque and Tomb of Mahomet in Medina.

MECCA, the capital of Arabia, and birth-place of Mahomet, is situated in a valley, and surrounded by mountains, from whence the stone of which it is built was taken. It is about two miles in length, and a mile broad. The temple is in the middle of the town, and is called Masjad Al Haram, or, *The Sacred Temple*. The houses here make no great figure; nor is it a place of any strength, not having any kind of fortifications. The principal support of the city is the great concourse of pilgrims who come hither. The xerif of Mecca generally resides at his castle of Marbaa, about three miles distant: his troops are entirely infantry, called Al Harrahah. There are scarce any springs in or about this city, except the Zemzem, the waters of which cannot be drank for any continuance, being rather brackish, and causing eruptions in those who drink too freely of it; so that the inhabitants are forced to use rain water caught in cisterns. Many attempts have been made to convey water to the city by means of aqueducts, but have all proved ineffectual.

Mocha is a large, populous trading city and sea-port, situated at the entrance of the Red Sea. It contains about

about 1000 inhabitants, mostly Mahometans; and here are great numbers of Jews; but these are obliged to live in the suburbs. The city, which is surrounded by a wall, has four gates, and several towers, some of them mounted with cannon, and garrisoned by soldiers. The streets are spacious, and the houses built of brick or stone, consisting of two stories, with terraces on the tops. The shops are judiciously built for trade, and stored with all sorts of commodities. Here arrives annually the great ship Mansouri, sent by the Grand Seigneur, laden with the richest merchandizes, and carrying back spices, silks, calicoes, and other valuable articles. Caravans also arrive here yearly from Turkey and Egypt. The port of Mocha is formed by two slips of land, on each point of which is a fortress, at the distance of about three miles from each other. A considerable branch of commerce of this city is coffee, which is cultivated at Betel-fagui, in the territory of Yenen. Mocha was no more than a mean village of fishermen, till the king of Yenen drove the Turks from Aden, and removed its trade principally to the above-mentioned city.

Aden is a large and populous city, containing about 6000 inhabitants, and was a place of prodigious resort till its trade was chiefly removed to Mocha. It is situated between the Persian Gulph and the Red Sea. Aden is so called, according to the Arabians, from its founder Aden, the son of Saba, and grandson of Abraham. It is surrounded by mountains, the summits of which are fortified with cannon, and from which an aqueduct conveys water into a capacious reservoir, about half a mile from the city. There are many handsome houses, with terraces on their tops, in Aden; and the place is well secured by its advantageous situation, and proper fortifications. The Turks became masters of this city through treachery, in 1538, and, with their usual cruelty, hung up the prince of it. They committed further acts of inhumanity, till the prince of Yenen extirpated them.

Medina, which is about fifty miles from the Red Sea, is situated in a plain, and surrounded by a wall of brick. Here are the mosque and tomb of Mahomet. The mosque is supported by 400 pillars, and supplied with 300 silver lamps, which are kept continually burning. Near the tomb of Mahomet is also the tomb of Abubeker.

Medina has several other grand mosques, but that of Mahomet is stiled the Most Holy. The houses are in general low; and this city contains about 1200 families.

Mahomet's tomb, which is in one of the angles of the magnificent mosque, is of fine white marble, covered with a grand cupola. The roof of the mosque itself is a kind of tower, covered with plates of silver, and on its flooring is thrown a rich gold cloth. The inside of the tomb is enriched with precious stones, of great size and beauty. Over the foot of the coffin is a golden crescent, so curiously wrought, and adorned with such precious stones, that its value is immense. The coffin is covered by a rich pall of gold and silver tissue, over which is a canopy of the same. Both are annually sent from the bashaw of Egypt, by order of the Grand Seigneur, with the greatest pomp imaginable, on the back of a camel; which animal derives a kind of sanctity from it, and is never afterwards used in any sort of drudgery.

SECTION VIII.

Description of the venerable Ruins of Palmyra.

AS Palmyra is situated in a dreary desert, quite from any common road, and beyond the Grand Seigneur's protection, there is no part of a tour through the east so difficult as a journey to it. An enquiry, however, into the ruins of this place, was resolved on by the ingenious Mr. Dawkins, who was soon joined by Mr. Wood, and Mr. Bouverie, the latter of whom died before the design was carried into execution. The fourth person who had engaged in this peculiar under-

taking, was an Italian of experienced skill in architecture and drawing. The rendezvous of this scientific society was at Rome, where they spent a winter in studying the ancient history and geography of the places they intended to visit.

As soon as they had embarked for this expedition, they made sail for the Archipelago, and visited every thing worthy their observation there, as well as in parts of Greece, Europe, the coasts of the Hellespont, Propontis, &c. up to the Black Sea; as also the inland parts of Asia Minor, Syria, Phoenicia, Palestine, and Egypt. They copied every inscription they met with, and bought up all the Syrian, Greek, and Arabic manuscripts they could possibly get.

The chief design of Mr. Dawkins in his tour, was to compile an history of the three Greek orders of architecture, at least with respect to the changes, from the days of Pericles to those of Dioclesian. With this view no difficulties whatever could deter our adventurers from prosecuting their truly laudable plan. In the course of their peregrinations, during which they inspected every piece of antique architecture, they visited Damascus by the way of mount Libanus, over which they crossed, and were here informed, that neither the name or power of the bashaw of Damascus could be any security to them, Palmyra being entirely out of his jurisdiction, and under that of an aga, who resided at Hassia, a village on the great caravan road from Damascus to Aleppo, and from which the Orontes is but at a short distance.

They went to Hassia, and were most kindly received by the aga, who expressed great surprise at the journey they had undertaken, and gave them an escort of his best Arab horsemen, properly armed, who, in a few hours, conducted them to Sudud, travelling through a desert swarming with antelopes.

Sudud is a miserable villa, consisting of huts built only with mud hardened by the sun. The inhabitants are Maronite Christians, who just cultivate as much land as they have occasion for, and make tolerable red wine.

They dined at this village, and bought some Greek manuscripts of a priest. From hence they proceeded to a Turkish village called Howarcen, a mean place, but which, it was presumed, had been once a situation of some consequence; there being in it a square tower with projecting battlements, and two mouldering churches, in the walls of which were several Corinthian capitals, as well as large Attic bases of white marble.

From thence they bent their course for Carieteen, a village, in which were some few broken columns, and Corinthian marble capitals, with two imperfect Greek inscriptions. Here they rested best part of the second day, to collect their people, and give their cattle rest: for in this part of the desert they may easily be lost, there not being any settled stages; likewise there is not any water.

All the caravans had now time to come up, with whom this kept company, and travelled two days without either rest or water.

The company were now about 200 persons in number, with their camels, mules, asses, &c. and the chief guide told the travellers, that as they were now in the most dangerous part of the way, it was requisite they should put themselves entirely under his direction; in consequence of which, the servants, with the baggage, were ordered to fall back to the rear, there to remain protected by the Arab escort, from which two or three horsemen, who rode Tartar fashion, with very short stirrups, were dispatched for discovery, to every eminence in sight. The road was north by east, through a flat sandy plain, about ten miles broad: nor was there a single tree or drop of water to be seen.

When night came on in this gloomy place, the Arabs dismounted from their horses, and seating themselves in a circle, smoked their pipes, and drank coffee.

At midnight the caravan halted two hours to refresh; and on the fourteenth of March at noon it arrived at the end

end of the plain, where some hills appeared; and here a valley was soon seen, in which was a ruined aqueduct that once conveyed water to Palmyra; the sepulchres of the antient inhabitants of which city lie thick both on the right and left, being square towers of considerable height: and soon after having passed them, a sudden opening among the hills exhibits a prodigious number of grand ruins of white marble, and beyond them a flat waste, extending quite to the Euphrates.

No prospect can be conceived more romantic, more striking, more melancholy, or more grand. Here are innumerable piles of Corinthian pillars, without any intervening building, or wall of the least solidity.

In this venerable, this solemn, splendid, romantic situation, our virtuosi staid fifteen days; during which time the Arab inhabitants entertained them in their huts with mutton and goats flesh.

“The walls of this ancient and stupendous city (says Mr. Wood) were flanked with square towers in many parts, particularly on the south-east, but nothing of them exists; and, from the best computation I could make, I imagine their circuit could not have been less than three English miles, provided they include the great temple. But as Palmyra must, when in its flourishing state, have been much more than three miles round, it is not improbable that the old city covered a neighbouring piece of ground, the circumference of which is ten miles, and in every spot of which, the Arabs say, ruins are turned up by digging. This is a still more reasonable supposition, when we remember that such fragments of antiquity as are found upon the three miles compass, just mentioned, could have belonged only to magnificent sepulchres and public edifices of the grandest kind; the most evident proofs that can be of an extensive city. Perhaps the walls, just now spoken of, inclosed only that part of Palmyra which its public buildings occupied in its most prosperous state; and were fortified, if not erected, by Justinian, who, according to Procopius, judged this a proper place to stop the furious progress of the Saracens. By so closely inspecting this wall, it appears that two or three of the flanking towers on the north-east were formerly sepulchral monuments; and this is some proof that the walls were posterior to the monuments, and the work of a Christian æra; for the pagan religion would have condemned the metamorphose as profane; besides, the Greeks and Romans always buried without the walls of their respective cities; and the same custom was religiously observed all over the East.”

Northwest of the ruins of Palmyra, on the summit of a rocky hill stands an antique castle, the ascent to which is very steep and rugged: it is a mean structure, not so old as the time of Justinian. It hath a ditch round it, which cannot be passed without some difficulty, the draw-bridge being broken down. There is one building here, the remains of which are truly grand; and this, according to the opinion of Mr. Wood, was the Temple of the Sun, which being much injured by the Roman soldiers, when Aurelian took the place, that emperor ordered, for the purpose of repairing it, three hundred pounds weight of gold, taken from the treasures of Zenobia; and one thousand eight hundred pounds weight of silver, levied upon the people; besides the jewels of the crown. The height and solidity of the walls of its court tempted the Turks to convert it into a place of strength, and then on the north-east and south they stopped up the windows, dug a ditch to the west, and demolished the portico of the grand entrance; building in its place a square tower to flank that side. To the east and south of this temple are some plantations of olives, and some small fields of corn, surrounded by mud walls, and watered by two streams, which, though hot and sulphurous, are by the inhabitants deemed very wholesome. One of these streams rises west of the ruins, in a grotto nearly high enough to admit of a man's standing upright; the bottom is a basin of clear water, about two feet deep, and the place, on account of the heats being confined, is

used as a bath. By an old inscription found here, on an altar sacred to Jupiter, we learn that this stream was much esteemed while Palmyra flourished, and was under the care of certain people elected thereto by ballot.

In the desert, three or four miles south-east of Palmyra, lies the Valley of Salt, whence Damascus and the neighbouring towns are supplied with that commodity. In this place David is supposed to have fire the Syrians, as mentioned in 2 Sam. viii. 13. The ground is impregnated with salt to a very considerable depth; and here they have a method of hollowing the ground to about a foot deep, and from the rain water that lodges in it a fine white salt is gathered.

“We have but little information from history,” says Mr. Wood, “of either Balbec or Palmyra: the knowledge we have is chiefly from inscriptions. Does not this defect convey instruction, and convince us of the instability of human grandeur? The fate of these two cities differs from every other; we have no testimonies of what they were, but their own noble fragments,” which are described in the following manner by another author:

“Palmyra, in the deserts of Arabia, or, as by the Scripture stiled, Tadmor in the Wilderness, is a most awful spectacle. As you approach, the first object that presents itself is a ruined castle, on the north side of the city. From it you descry Tadmor, inclosed on three sides by long ridges of mountains; and to the southward is a vast plain extending far beyond the sight. The city must have been of large extent, from the space now taken up by its ruins; among which live about thirty or forty miserable families, in huts of dirt, within a spacious court which once enclosed a magnificent temple. This court has a stately high wall of large square stones, adorned by palasters both within and without; there are about sixty on each side. The beautiful cornices have been beaten down by the Turks. Towards the centre are the remains of a castle, shrouding the fragments of a temple of exquisite beauty, as appears by what is still standing of its entrance, viz. two stones thirty-five feet long, carved with vines and clusters of grapes. In the great court are the remains of two rows of very noble marble pillars thirty-seven feet high, with capitals finely carved, and the cornices must have been of equal elegance; fifty-eight of these pillars are entire; there must have been many more, as it appears they went quite round the court, supporting a most spacious double piazza. The walks on the west side of this piazza, which face the front of the temple, seem to have been grand and spacious; and at each end are two niches for statues at length, with pedestals, borders, supporters, canopies, &c. carved with inimitable art. The space within this once beautiful inclosure is (or rather was) encompassed by another row of pillars of a different order, fifty feet high, sixteen of which are yet standing. The temple was ninety feet long, and about forty broad: its grand entrance on the west appears, by what remains of it, to have been the most magnificent in the world. Over a door-way in the remaining walls you trace a spread eagle, as at Balbec; and here are the fragments of Cupids, as well as of eagles, most finely imitating nature, on large stones mouldering on the earth. Nothing of the temple stands but the walls, the window-places of which are narrow at top, but richly adorned with sculpture. In the middle is a cupola, all one solid piece. Leaving this court and temple, your eyes are saluted with a great number of pillars of marble scattered for near a mile. To the north you have a stately obelisk before you, consisting of seven large stones besides its capital, grandly sculptured: it is more than fifty feet high, and is twelve feet and a half in circumference just above the pedestal; and it is imagined a statue once stood upon it. East and west of this, at the distance of about a quarter of a mile, is another obelisk, that seems to have corresponded with the first-mentioned; and, according to the fragments of a third, it seems as if there had been a continued range of them. On

On one of these remains of antiquity, which is about forty feet high, is a Greek inscription, commemorating two patriots; and about an hundred paces from it is a large and lofty entrance, leading to a grand piazza, adorned with marble pillars, on most of which are inscriptions. A little farther, onward to the left, are the remains of a stately pile of remarkable fine marble twenty-two feet long. On the west side of the piazza are several openings for gates; two of them appear to have been the most superb that ever captivated the human eye, both in point of grandeur of work in general, and the beautiful porphyry pillars with which they were adorned. Eastward of the piazza are a great number of scattered marble pillars, most of which have been deprived of their elegant capitals. A little ruined temple lies mouldering at a short distance, which appears to have been a very curious structure. But of all the venerable remains, none more attract admiration than the magnificent sepulchres, towards the north of the city, extending a mile and more, and which, at a distance, have the appearance of tops of decayed churches, or bastions of ruined fortifications."

The magnificent city of Palmyra is mentioned in the Arabic translation of the Chronicles, as subsisting before the days of Solomon: but John of Antioch, surnamed Malala, says that it was built by Solomon, and on the very spot where his father slew the Philistine chief. He affirms that the city was built in commemoration of that memorable action.

We find in the 9th chapter of the 1st book of Kings, and the 8th of the 2d book of Chronicles, that Solomon erected a city in a wilderness, and called it Tadmor: and we are informed by Josephus, in the first book of his Antiquities, that some time after, the Greeks and Romans distinguished it by the name of Palmyra, even while its first name was still retained by the Syrians: and this is confirmed by St. Jerome, who says, Palmyra and Tadmor are the Syrian and Greek names of the same place: and the country Arabs, even at this time, call it by the former name. In this circumstance they are remarkably particular, preserving the ancient denomination of places through various revolutions. Thus the Acca of the Old Testament is at this day called by them Acca; and the Greek name of Ptolemais, in which that of Acca was for some time immured, is lost through disuse. Not that human judgement can pretend to advance, however, that Palmyra was actually the work of Solomon: an opinion can only be offered, concurrent with that of the present inhabitants, who, among many other particulars, point out the wife man's seraglio, the tomb of his favourite concubine, &c. &c. and say, All these things were done by Solomon, the son of David. However, such structures as might have been erected by Solomon, we will suppose to have been entirely demolished by Nebuchadnezzar, who, in his march to the siege of Jerusalem, destroyed this city, as we are assured by John of Antioch. For it is almost improbable that buildings so elegantly grand could be prior to the footing of the Greeks in Syria; and taking this for granted, we must not be surprised that Xenophon takes no notice of it in his retreat of Cyrus the younger, though he is minutely exact in his description of the desert. Neither must we express the least amazement that it is not mentioned by Alexander, who also crossed the desert in his road to Theophrastus on the Euphrates. From its situation between Antioch and Seleucia, and its being a strong barrier against the Parthians, one would be apt to conjecture, that it was founded by some of the Seleucidæ; though nothing of it is to be met with in history: and yet no time is more proper to make enquiry about it, than from the demise of Alexander, to the reduction of Syria to a Roman province. That the æra of Seleucus was used at Palmyra, is proved by many inscriptions; whence it may be inferred, that the place submitted to Alexander, and was for some time governed by his successors: but this evidence could not be looked upon as absolute testimony, if not strengthened by collateral facts; for it might

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with reason be said, that the natives of Palmyra used the æra of the Seleucidæ only as common with their neighbours. We are told by Appian, that Marc Antony attempted to plunder this city, and that many of the natives made their escape by crossing the Euphrates.

We do not find that Palmyra is taken notice of even when Pompey reduced Syria to a Roman province, and when a taste for the liberal arts began to be prevalent.

Appian, when he speaks of Marc Antony's visit to Palmyra, says, "At this time the Palmyrenes were merchants; they supplied the Romans with the commodities of Arabia and the Indies; and his real motive for attacking them was to enrich his troops: though, to give his conduct the colour of justice, he asserted they had broken the neutrality subsisting between the Romans and the Parthians."

Pliny, speaking of this noble city, says, "Palmyra, which is on all sides encompassed by an extensive desert, and totally separated from the rest of the world, has preserved its independence between the two great empires of Rome and Parthia. It is distant from the Parthian Seleucia, on the Tigris, 337 miles, from the highest part of the Mediterranean 203, and from Damascus 176. The soil is rich, and it is pleasantly watered."

The streams, of which we have before spoken, may with great truth be said to "pleasantly water the place," being capable of receiving any direction to nurture the soil.

As the Palmyrenes, according to Appian, were merchants, and a wealthy people in the time of Marc Antony, their riches and trade must have been of some standing.

Palmyra, according to the coins of Caracalla, was a Roman colony in that prince's life-time: and by some antique inscriptions we discover, that the people joined Alexander Severus against the Persians.

The greatest figure Palmyra ever made in history was in the reign of Gallienus, under whose shameful indolence the Roman glory in the east became considerably obscured; when Odenathus, joining that emperor's party, collected the poor remains of the discomfited Romans in Syria, whom he led against Sapor, the Persian monarch, put his army to flight, and advanced with his victorious troops to Ctesiphon, the capital of the empire. On his return from this expedition, full of riches and honours, and revered by the Romans as their deliverer, he was unanimously proclaimed Augustus, and co-partner in the empire with Gallienus.

Such of the accounts of Odenathus as have reached posterity, serve rather to heighten than gratify human curiosity. He was a native of Palmyra, and so admirable a politician, that he for a while held the balance of power between the empires of Persia and Rome. He drove the Goths out of Asia Minor, where they had committed the most violent ravages. This was his last great action, in which, it was apprehended, he was treacherously slain by Mæonius, his kinsman. His son, Herodes, suffered the same fate soon after. Nor did Mæonius long survive, being cut to pieces by the soldiery.

Zenobia, the queen of Odenathus, was a character worthy of attention. She possessed extraordinary endowments, both mental and personal, and gave signal proofs of military prowess in attending her husband in the field. On his demise she assumed the reins of government in the name of her children, and renouncing all alliance with Rome, attacked and defeated the army of Heraclianus, the Roman general, who was sent against the Persians. She afterwards displayed other gallant achievements; but was at length compelled to submit to the power of the Romans, under the emperor Aurelian. Her character, however great and extraordinary as it may appear, is tarnished with the suspicion of her having been privy to the deaths of her husband and son.

It appears from a Latin inscription still extant, that Palmyra was afterwards governed by the Romans, and that in the year of Christ 400, a Roman legion was quartered there.

C H A P. X.

E M P I R E O F C H I N A.

BEFORE we enter on our description of this extensive empire, together with the customs, manners, &c. of the inhabitants, it may not be improper to premise, that as we have been favoured by an ingenious friend, with his own observations and remarks on a voyage so late as the year 1786, never heretofore made public, we shall have a most agreeable opportunity of interspersing them with the accounts of others in such a manner as, from their novelty and peculiarity, we presume, will prove highly acceptable to our readers.

SECTION I.

Origin, Discovery, Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Rivers, Climate, Soil, &c.

ACCORDING to ancient records, and the prevailing opinion of the learned, this kingdom, or rather empire, appears to have been governed by its own monarchs above 4000 years, during which the laws, manners, language and apparel of the people, have remained invariably the same; so that they not only lay claim to antiquity, but a venerable attachment to old customs peculiar to themselves.

China is said by many to have been the country of the ancient Sinae, and so called from one of its monarchs of remote date, named Chin, or Cina. But the most probable derivation of its name seems to have been from a word signifying in the Chinese language *central*: for the natives, till they were convinced of their error by European mathematicians and astronomers, imagined the earth to be square, and that their country not only occupied the best part of it, but was situated exactly in the center. China is divided into 16 provinces, all of which, except one, are within the great wall.

The discovery of this remote and opulent empire by the Portuguese seems to have dazzled the eyes of its explorers. The Jesuits, who were the first Europeans that have given a description of it, represent it, in point of extent, populousness, and riches, as vastly superior to any part of the known world.

China is situated on the most eastern verge of the Asiatic continent. It is bounded on the north by East and Western Tartary; on the east by the Eastern Ocean; on the west by part of the Mogul empire, and India beyond the Ganges; and on the south by the Indian Ocean, and the kingdoms of Laos, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochin-China. It extends in latitude, from 20 to almost 43 degrees, viz. from north to south about 1200 miles; and in longitude, from 98 to 123 degrees east, making 1600 miles in breadth. If that part of Tartary, now subordinate to the Tartarian Emperor of China, is included, the length of the whole empire will be increased to 1800 miles.

As the whole empire of China extends from the second to the fifth climate, its air and soil must consequently be various. The longest days in the northern parts are 14 hours and 45 minutes, and the shortest about 10 hours and 45 minutes; so that throughout this very extensive empire, the difference in length of days is only four hours. Towards the north the air is colder than, from its situation, might be naturally supposed. This frigidity, however, is caused by the ridges of mountains that run along those parts, which are excessive high, and commonly covered with deep snows. The southern parts are sultry; but the climate in general is temperate and salubrious.

Of the many rivers in this country, we shall only specify those that are most worthy of notice. The principal of these are as follow. The Hoambo, or Yellow River, so called because, after heavy rains, the

waters are muddy, and tinged with a yellow colour, owing to the peculiar quality of the soil through which it flows. It takes its rise towards the frontiers of Indostan, in the intermediate mountains between Tartary and the province of Suchan, and, after maintaining a serpentine course of near 1900 miles, discharges itself into the Eastern Ocean. The Hoambo is rapid in the extreme, and, together with the effect of torrents of rains from the adjacent hills, swells to that degree, that, notwithstanding the exertion of the indefatigable pains and labour which characterize the Chinese, it frequently overflows its bounds, and does irreparable damage.

The Ky-am, or Blue River, takes its rise in Tibet, maintaining a course from east to west, and empties itself into the Eastern Ocean. It is remarkable for its breadth and depth.

There are in China, also, the Bloody River, so called from the redness of the sand; and the Pearl River, so called from the number of precious stones found among its gravel, which, by moonshine, overspreads its waters with so uncommon a lustre, as gives their surface the transparent gloss of waving pearl.

The River Tomin, in harvest time, turns blue, of which the adjacent inhabitants avail themselves, by using its waters for the purpose of dying, which, at that season, afford an admirable tinge. The waters of a river near Pomgaw are so thin that timber will not float on them; and those of another, in the neighbourhood of Ching-tien, are odoriferous. The River Kin-xa has gold sand in its bottom. The waters of the River Xo are of a medicinal quality, and much resorted to by the diseased for the cure of sundry disorders.

But the most remarkable river in China is one near the city of Hang-chen, which rises yearly upon a certain day to a stupendous altitude. Multitudes repair to behold this phenomenon; though neither Asiatic or European philosophers have yet defined the cause of it. When the surges subside, the adjacent people pare off the surface of the shores which they covered, and this part becomes excellent salt, a commodity useful and salutary to the inhabitants of an inland district, who would be greatly distressed, were they not supplied through the means of this inundation. This adds to other instances of the singular bounty of Providence, in adapting various blessings to various climes, as may suit the exigencies of the creatures which inhabit them.

The bays of this country are those of Nankin and Canton. The canals claim the greatest attention, are equally admirable in design and execution, and exhibit the most striking proofs of human invention, diligence, and assiduity, as well as the excellence of the legislature, and provident care of the ancient Chinese. Some of these canals extend several hundred miles, and are deep enough to contain vessels of considerable burthen. They are disposed in wonderful proportion, and the banks on each side are lined with hewn stone. When the wind admits, the vessels are navigated in them by the usual means of sails; and in calms they are towed by men. The whole country is chequered, as it were, and watered by sluices from the large canals, over which are erected a great number of bridges, with the center arches so constructed, as to admit of the passage of vessels without the least obstruction. The most superb of these canals is that called Yun-lean, or the Royal Canal, a most stupendous work, that divides China into two parts, north and south, and thereby opens an uninterrupted communication between the two extremities of the empire. As the low lands are rendered fertile by innumerable canals, the higher grounds are cultivated by the indefatigable labour of the people: so that the liberal hand of a bountiful Providence, as well as visi-
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ble effects of human exertion, are every where to be traced. They have levelled hills with infinite labour: the surfaces of others they have increased by flattening them at the summit. They have divided a great number into separate ridges, regularly secured with stone walls; and the surface of these terraces are sown with divers kinds of grain, and watered by machines curiously adapted to the purpose.

Some of the hills are cut into the most fanciful shapes, so as to resemble, at a distance, a variety of animal figures, as elephants, camels, leopards, boars, tygers, &c. Those, by way of eminence, called, "The hills of five horses heads," have great affinity to their appellation, and may be deemed a stupendous production both as to nature and art.

Nor are they only expert at levelling natural hills, but equally adroit in raising artificial mounts; so that every cultivated part is thereby secured from colds, heats, blasts, or droughts, in the most effectual manner. From this concise view of the natural fertility of the soil, and ingenuity, as well as industry, of the people, the reader must be led to infer, the production of a superabundant supply, not only of the necessaries, but delicacies of life; and also the opulence and health, populousness and pleasantry, of a country thus situated, and thus cultivated. It might afford an admirable design for the pencil of the ingenious artist, as the agreeable variety of its landscapes surpasses imagination fully to conceive. Such is the variegated prospect of its verdant lawns, bending blades, delightful groves, sequestered bowers, wonderful canals, winding streams, trees covered with delicious fruits, together with cascades, turrets, &c. that the eye cannot behold it without rapture, and entertaining the idea of a perfect Elysium.

The only mountains of China are those which separate it from Tartary, and are craggy, steep, and almost inaccessible.

SECTION II.

Natural History, and various Productions of China.

WE deem it incumbent on us, before we enter upon the subject before us, to observe, that much honour is due to the memory of the late John Bradby Blake, Esq. one of the English East India Company's resident supercargoes at Canton in China, for his curious researches, and valuable discoveries, in the natural history and manufactures of China, and other parts of Asia; as also for his great and successful endeavours to render his discoveries useful to mankind in general, and his fellow subjects in particular. His plan was to procure the seeds of all the vegetables produced in China, which are used in medicine, manufactures, or food, and forward to Europe not only such seeds, but the plants producing them, in order to be propagated in Great Britain and Ireland, and such parts abroad as appertain to them. Nor did he confine himself to the produce of that empire only, but established an intercourse (by means of the junks) with Japan and Cochin-China, and succeeded so well, that, through his means, the seeds of the fine Cochin-China rice, and those of the tallow tree, were propagated in Jamaica, and some parts adjacent, and proved of great utility to the inhabitants. An eminent physician and naturalist, who received by the same means, seeds of two sorts of China indigo, the lacquer tree, the oil tree, (used to mix up the lacquer for cabinets,) the alcea, which is an article of vegetable food, and many other seeds from Pekin, and more northerly provinces of China, very candidly declares, that much advantage must accrue from a plan of this kind, at least ought to accrue from it, if as well seconded on this side the Atlantic. All the plants before-mentioned, with a variety of others, from seeds sent to England, were prudently distributed, and afterwards flourished in his Majesty's garden at Kew, and in the gardens of several eminent physicians and botanists in the vicinity of London.

Mr. Blake also sent home, at various times, above fifty drawings of choice plants, most curiously delineated from nature, with all their parts of fructification dissected by himself, and coloured. These drawings were shewn to many of the curious, and particularly to that ingenious and learned botanist the late Dr. Solander, who declared them to be excellent performances.

Nor was Mr. Blake's genius confined to botanic subjects; he had begun to collect, or rather procure, fossils and ores. Mineralogy was likewise a branch of his researches. He sent a specimen of lead ore, from a mine the Chinese had of late discovered in the interior parts of China; and also a specimen of the ore *paak-tong*, or white copper; as also the processes by which this beautiful metal is made into divers utensils in China, in order for experiments to be made thereby in England, under the direction of the Secretary to the Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. He also sent specimens of the earths, clays, sands, stones, and other materials used in making the true Nankin porcelain, from which an ingenious English artist produced some pieces of excellent porcelain, and declared the earths, &c. were so complete a set of specimens, and yet so simple, as to be, beyond a doubt, the true porcelain materials. Mr. Blake, in fine, collected models of machines various arts practised, and manufactures carried on, by the Chinese, in order that his country might receive benefit by the ingenuity of their invention.

From what has been premised, it is not to be wondered that in China are to be found the products of most other countries, as well as many peculiar to itself. In some of the provinces they have two, but in most three, harvests in the year. It produces grain of every kind in rich abundance, excellent oranges, grapes, ananas, figs, pomegranates, and many other fruits.

The meadows and pastures are extremely rich, and feed vast numbers of cattle: nor is any country better furnished with horses, oxen, swine, buffaloes, and game in general, and in particular deers of sundry kinds, whose furs are a very profitable commodity. Here are some elephants, and numbers of tygers, very ferocious, that range for prey in large herds, and are extremely dangerous when pressed by hunger, in entering villages, and attacking the inhabitants with most savage fury. Leopards, and other wild creatures, some peculiar to the country, are very numerous. Here is also the musk-cat, which carries that valuable perfume in a kind of bladder under the navel, and is therefore of great importance to the commerce of the country.

The Chinese camel is about the bigness of a middle-sized horse, of a dun or ash colour, well made, and has two bunches upon its back.

The bears of China naturally walk upon their hind legs, in their face resemble monkeys, have long beards, great cunning, are very docile, and, through the management of their tutors, capable of performing a variety of tricks highly laughable and entertaining. There are abundance of mules here wild in the mountains, but sometimes they venture into the plains, where they are hunted, and, if taken, killed, and eaten; their flesh being sweet, tender, and much admired. They are so untractable, that they cannot be rendered otherwise serviceable. They resemble ours in point of shape and size, but are of a lighter colour, and very fleet.

Of the the animal curiosities the greatest is the dwarf stag, resembling exactly a stag in form, and being no bigger than a dog in size. This little animal is chiefly domestic, few persons of any consideration being without them in their houses or gardens.

The breed of the Chinese horses, which originally were but small, has been greatly improved by the introduction of Tartarian, Arabian and Persian horses, insomuch that the natives are now not only possessed of good horses, but are become expert in the management of them.

With respect to birds, eagles, cranes, storks, birds of paradise, pelicans, peacocks, pheasants, geese, swans,

swans, ducks, and a great variety of others, are found here in abundance.

Among the rest, the pheasant is singularly remarkable for the beauty of its plumage and the delicacy of its taste. It is, therefore, as much prized by the voluptuary in China as in other parts, and therefore falls a general sacrifice. The hait-sing, a bird peculiar to China and part of Tartary, has feathers admirably variegated and curiously interspersed.

From the multitude of its rivers, canals and lakes, as well as its proximity in some parts to the sea; this country cannot but abound with fish, and that in the greatest variety.

Most of the opulent stock the ponds in their gardens with gold or silver fish, or keep them in their houses in fine china vessels by way of ornament. At present they are as well known in Europe as in China. They are in length from three to about nine inches, and proportionably thick. Some are of a gold, others of a silver colour, the lustre of which is inconceivably beautiful, and many are elegantly variegated with fine shining gold and silver tints, and delicately streaked with an admirable gold. In mild weather they generally swim near the surface of the water, and give an exquisite brightness and variety to it. They are very tender, and easily killed by heat, cold, strong scents, the report of a cannon, thunder, &c.

In England they will breed in ponds, but not in the glass globular vessels in which they are usually kept in houses. When kept in glasses, the only trouble is to change the water about once a week; and the expence is so trifling that three pennyworth of millet-seed will supply a score of them with food for a twelvemonth. There prevails an error that the gold fish is the male and the silver the female. This has been refuted by a correspondent in the vicinity of London, who has now great numbers of the gold sort only in one pond, which every year have increased their species; a full proof that there are the male and female of the gold sort as well as of others.

Some of the rivers of China produce a yellow fish, which is delicious food. They are very large, and only to be caught at stated seasons. The meal fish is much esteemed, and the eyes are remarkable, being surrounded by a black ring, which is again enclosed by two white circles of an admirable brightness. There is the armour-fish, so termed from the vast number of scales with which it is covered: it is deemed excellent food, and there is a saying concerning it among the Chinese, which is, "that the armour is fit for a soldier, and the flesh food for an emperor."

There are various modes of fishing practised in China. They catch the young fry in order to stock their ponds and reservoirs in their gardens, by placing hurdles, mats and net-work across the rivers and lakes to intercept them. They also use nets and lines as in Europe, sometimes catch fish by diving, and sometimes transfix them with darts. They have a custom of going in boats in the night-time, when the beams of the moon reflecting on the varnish with which they are painted, the fish being thereby deluded, leap into the boats and become an easy prey.

Ducks are taken upon the canals by the following stratagem. Being fond of pecking at the gourds, melons, and other fruits, that fall from the trees which overhang the streams and float upon the waters, they scoop a large gourd out clean, and cut holes so as to come exactly before the eyes and mouth. A man then puts the gourd on his head and goes into the water up to his chin. The ducks, imagining it to be a gourd floating on the water, swim to and peck at it, when the man seizes them by the legs, and with great ease catches numbers in a short time.

In China there is a particular bird trained to decoy fish, as ducks are to decoy their own species in the fens of Lincolnshire. These birds follow the fishermen to the rivers or lakes, dive at a signal given, seize the fish, fly with it to the boat, and immediately disgorge

it, which they cannot but do, a ring being placed upon the neck to prevent their swallowing it. If the fish proves too large for one, several seize it together and convey it to the fishermen.

Of insects the most remarkable is the silk-worm, of which we shall treat hereafter; a butterfly of amazing size and beauty, and a species of lizards called wall-dragons. The fields in the summer are infested with locusts which do considerable damage. The natives, however, use divers means either to destroy or expel them.

Agriculture in China is held in a degree of veneration: they revere the memories of those husbandmen who sowed the seeds of the happiness and stability of the empire in the fertile bosom of the earth, that inexhaustible source of whatever conduces to the nourishment, and consequently to the increase of mankind. It is remarked by the Abbe Raynal, in his Philosophical and Political History, that to do honour to this profession the emperors of China become husbandmen officially. It is one of their public functions to break up the ground in the spring, and the parade of magnificence that accompanies this ceremony draws together all the farmers in the neighbourhood of the capital. The example of the prince is followed in all the provinces, and at the same season the viceroys repeat the same ceremonies in the presence of a numerous concourse of husbandmen. The Europeans, who have been present at this ceremony at Canton never speak of it without emotion, and it has been regretted that this festival, the political aim of which is the encouragement of labour, is not established in our climate. In fine, the rural industry and œconomy of the Chinese may be proposed as an example to all other nations in the universe.

But notwithstanding this deserved eulogium on their rural industry and œconomy, it is observed by botanists, that they are unacquainted with the nature of grafting trees, or meliorating the earth when they are planted, the fruit in general being of an inferior flavour, and less delicious than that of Europe. They have divers trees appropriated to divers uses. There are the orange, lime and citron trees, a kind of date tree, the pea tree, which produces a fruit that resembles and is as delicate to the taste as the pea of Europe; the meal tree, the pulp of which yields excellent flour: the pepper tree, the berries of which are so strong as to overcome by the scent those who pluck them. There are two kinds of varnish tree, called by the natives the Tsi-chu and the Tong-chu; the former produces an excellent varnish that is universally admired; the latter furnishes a varnish of an inferior kind. From the Kou-chu, or Size-tree, is extracted a matter resembling milk, which is of great use in gilding. The willow is merely to gratify the view, and therefore planted on the sides of their rivers and canals, and also the subject of pastoral poetry with them as well as with other nations. The red leaves and white fruit of the tallow tree form a striking contrast; of the kernels, which have the properties of tallow, candles are made, but their light is rather dim. Swarms of insects, at stated seasons, cover the white wax tree, and leave on its branches their threads of wax. Delicate pickles are made from the mango, and admirable sweet-meats from the produce of the tse-tse tree.

It is agreed by naturalists, that the polomie tree (not peculiar to China) bears the largest fruit in the universe. The kernel, when roasted, is delicious, and makes an excellent dish when dressed in cocoa-nut milk. The most extraordinary property of this tree is that the fruit grows from its trunk; indeed, it is of such bulk that the branches could not sustain it.

The Chinese form their anchors of the wood of the iron-tree, which is so very hard and durable, that they affirm they are more lasting than those made of the metal from which the tree derives its name. The tret-ham is admired for the beauty of its wood, which is of a bright red variegated with fine veins, which appear like the effects of art. The

The bamboo, or cane-tree, is appropriated to many useful purposes. The bud has an agreeable flavour, and the pith is fine eating. It is used in buildings, and the tubes are used for water-pipes. The splinters make baskets; and when it becomes rotten, it is reduced into a paste, of which they make paper. The nan-mu tree, however, furnishes the chief wood for building; though they have oak, lime, sanders-wood, ebony, camphire, and other large and lofty trees.

Amongst a vast variety of shrubs is the *tea plant* or *shrub*, of which production, as so generally esteemed throughout Europe, we shall give a particular description. There are several kinds of *tea*, some finer, smoother, and more fragrant than others, according to the soil they grow in. That named *Singlo* is deemed the most elegant, and used by the more opulent. Some are denominated from their particular colours or qualities; as the *Vowi* (i. e. *Bohi* or *Bohé*) so called from its dark or brown colour. This sort is much esteemed in China for taste, flavour, and medicinal qualities. It is originally the same plant with the *Green*, and only differs from it by its being gathered six or seven weeks sooner, that is in March, when in its full bloom, and the leaves are full of juice; whereas the other, by being left so much longer on the tree, loses a part of its juice, and contracts a different colour, taste, and virtue, being more rough to the palate, and raking to the stomach. The *Bohea*, or first bud, is gathered as aforesaid; the *Imperial* in April; and the *Singlo* in May or June: so that the general division of teas is into two sorts. viz. *Green* and *Bohea*; though they are distinguished by other appellations, according to the time of gathering, province where produced, or method of curing, as *Congo*, *Souchong*, *Singlo*, *Bloom*, *Imperial*, *Hyson*, *Gunpowder*, &c.

The process of curing or preparing it is as follows. After the leaves are plucked, they are infused in water for a certain time, by which the resinous particles are dissipated, and rendered palatable: for without such preparation, they would be so exceedingly bitter, that scarce any quantity of sugar would be sufficient to correct the taste. After this infusion, the *Bohea* is exposed to the heat of the sun, or dried by the fire till it is crisped or contracted into the small compass in which we see it. But the *Green* having been assiduously turned and stirred about the whole time, is strewed upon sheets of copper, (which are gently warmed by embers beneath them,) and rolled up and down by persons, whose hands are defended by thick leather gloves from the effluvia, which, without such precaution, would prove of the most pernicious consequence. Though the green tea confessedly derives the principal part of its tincture and flavour from the baleful vapours that exhale from the heated copper, these very circumstances, instead of rendering it obnoxious, are the principal recommendations of it, not only to the Europeans, but the Asiatics: for such is the insatiation of mankind, that they would rather please the eye, and gratify the palate, than attend to the constitution of their frame, though so essential to its preservation. This is evident in the particular instance of the general preference given to the unwholesome *Green* over the more salubrious *Bohea*. A writer of allowed authenticity, however, affirms, that the *Bohea*, in curing, is sometimes mixed with another herb. This may probably be an adulteration of which the Chinese, who are very avaricious, and practised in most kinds of fraud, may be reasonably suspected. The price of the *Green* tea is enhanced not only on account of the greater degree of trouble in preparing it than the *Bohea*, but also because when the young leaves are plucked, the tree receives so much injury, that it is allowed two or three years to gain its strength and vigour; during which time the leaves that accidentally fall are gathered up, and methods used to convert it into *Bohea*.

The Chinese neither drink it in the manner we do, nor so strong, but use it only as their common drink. It is said they were first obliged to have recourse to it to

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correct the unwholesome brackishness of their waters, which, in some places, were not only distasteful, but productive of distempers; so that when its virtues became known, it grew into universal use. It is deemed by them a singular diluter, and purifier of the blood, a great strengthener of the brain and stomach, and promoter of digestion, perspiration, and other secretions, and particularly a great diuretic, and cleanser of the reins and urethra. They drink it in great quantities in high fevers, in cholics, and other acute diseases; and think it a sure, though slow remedy, against those of the chronic kind, from its admirable salubrious qualities.

The faculty are divided with respect to the qualities of this celebrated exotic plant. Dr. Quincey speaks of tea, particularly the *Green*, as one of the most wholesome vegetables that was ever introduced into food or medicine: while Dr. James, on the other hand, affirms, that whatever virtues may be ascribed to tea, or however useful as a medicine it may be in China, he is very certain, that either the tea, the water, or both, are very prejudicial as an habitual drink in England, inasmuch, that he has known many hysterical cases relieved by discontinuing the use of it, without taking any remedy whatever, and in one in particular attended with shocking convulsions.

But these eminent professors may have carried their respective opinions to the extreme; for it is generally admitted, that tea has many of the virtues attributed to it by the Chinese, without being so universal in its effects, as Dr. Quincey would persuade us. It may likewise be in some instances unwholesome, without being so pernicious as Dr. James would represent it. If to these we add the probable adulterations of the Chinese merchants, and our own retailers, together with the virtues it may lose in the voyage from a variety of accidents to which it is exposed, it will tend to render us more candid in our opinions concerning the particulars for which these professors so warmly contend.

The tea-tree commonly bears leaves from top to bottom, which are indented like our rose leaves or sweet-briar; and the flower is very much like that of the latter, with six upper and six under leaves. The fruit is of the size of a small pippin, finely flavoured, and tastes somewhat like a clove. The seed is round, blackish, and about the size of a large pea, when dry and shrunk. Being put into the mouth, it yields at first a sweet, but being kept longer in it, a bitterish taste, and yields likewise a quantity of oil, which, in some parts, they use as sauce to food. It seldom, if ever, grows to above the size of a rose bush, or, at most, a silver-tree. It is worthy of notice, that the Dutch dry and prepare their sage like other teas, and sell it to the Chinese, who are so fond of it, and prefer it so far to the best of their own growth, that they give four pounds of the latter for one of the former.

The use of tea was introduced into our country before the restoration, as mention is made of it in the first act of parliament that settled the excise on the king for life in 1660. Catherine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the use of it common at his court.

The ginseng, so famous among the Chinese, as the universal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in British America.

There are several vegetables in China of a medicinal nature, particularly rhubarb, *rouling* or China-root, and tobacco.

The mountains of China are stored with iron, copper, quicksilver, lead, white copper, or tutanague, which the natives call *pe-tong*, load-stones, pit-coal, salts of various kinds, and quarries of stones, particularly marble, many veins of which are finely variegated. As one of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry, their gold mines are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick

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up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

SECTION III.

Persons, Dress, Dispositions, Customs, Manners, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, &c. of the Natives.

THE paintings of the Chinese are so extremely deficient in point of resemblance of feature, that the Europeans have thence conceived a less favourable opinion of their persons than they really deserve. In general they are comely and graceful. In the northern parts their complexions are fair; but to the southward they are swarthy. They are of the middle stature, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, and their noses rather short. The women have little sparkling eyes, plump rosy lips, regular features, and a delicate, tho' florid, complexion. The smallness of their feet is deemed a principal part of their beauty; and no swathing is omitted when they are young, to give them that accomplishment; so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than walk. This fanciful ornament, or piece of beauty, if it may be so called, is said by some to have been invented by the ancient Chinese, to restrain women from visiting and rambling too much abroad; while others affirm that the fashion was taken from an empress, called Takia, who naturally having very small feet, took infinite pains to make them worse, and the court ladies imitating her example, the fashion became general, insomuch, that no expression was thought so ignominious, as to reproach a Chinese woman with having large feet.

The Tartarian women have not given in to this absurd practice.

The Chinese, in many instances, have particular ideas of beauty. In youth the men pluck out most of the hairs of their beards by the roots; but when they advance to the age of forty, they suffer what remains to grow long, as they imagine its appearance gives them an air of wisdom and dignity. On the crown of their heads they wear a single lock of hair; the Tartars having obliged them to cut off the rest. Men of quality and learning let the nails of the fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour. In the summer they wear a conical cap made of splinters, lined with fatten, and adorned with the tail of a red cow, the hair of which descends from the top to the edges. But the cap of the superior order is made of paste-board, adorned with a tuft of red silk, and covered within side and without with the richest fatten.

The dresses of both men and women are much alike, and seem calculated for ease and freedom, consisting of a vest and sash, and a kind of gown with long sleeves thrown over them. Their drawers are wide, and they have buskins quilted with cotton. In summer their necks are bare, and their vests without lining; but in winter they are covered with silks or skins, according to their different circumstances. The women of quality (though seldom seen by the Europeans) take much pains in decorating their heads with artificial flowers, and gold and silver spangles. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes dishevelled. The women in common wear it tied in a bunch at the top of the head. Their garments are of all colours except yellow, which none but the royal family are permitted to wear. The females adopt a most disagreeable custom of chewing betel to darken their teeth, as black teeth are deemed ornamental in this country. Those who live upon the water, or follow the employment of fishing, are clad in cocoa-nut leaves, and have a sort of umbrella made of the same fixed close to the head. The fashion of using fans is universal throughout China, and has thence been transplanted to several other places, particularly Europe.

The Chinese merit great applause, and are highly

worthy of imitation, with respect to their industry and perseverance in the accomplishment of whatever they undertake. Their public works are founded upon rational principles, utility being the leading point in view, and pleasure and ornament but secondary considerations. As their laws prescribe modes of behaviour for persons of all ranks and degrees, these people are ceremonious to an extreme, and appear very polite and affable: but these exterior accomplishments are clouded by duplicity and fraud; and as avarice is their leading passion, they can neither be influenced by motives of honesty or humanity. They are very artful in evading the law, are not daring enough to commit a public robbery, but excel every nation upon earth in privately cheating. Nay, they take as much delight in over-reaching and cozening one another, as they do the greatest strangers.

Captain Cook observes, that (the danger of being hanged for any crime being excepted) there is nothing, however infamous, which a Chinese will refuse to do for gain, and in this opinion he concurs with every preceding writer; so that these people have taken no small pains to establish their reputation for infamy.

When the Resolution and Discovery, on the last voyage, performed by order of his Britannic Majesty, anchored off the town of Macao, Capt. King was sent by order of Capt. Gore [to whom the command of the expedition devolved on the demise of Capt. Cook] with a party to Canton, to procure, if possible, some necessary supplies of provision and cordage. Here he had an opportunity of discovering the genius of the Chinese for trade. Apprehending that Canton would be an advantageous market for furs, he had taken with him about twenty sea-otter skins, and being directed by some of the English supercargoes to a member of the *Hong*, (an appellation given to a society of the principal merchants of the city,) was assured by him, that he might rely on his integrity in the transaction of business between them.

The skins being laid before this merchant, he examined them over and over again, with particular attention, and at last informed Captain King, that he could not think of offering more than 300 dollars for them. As the Captain was convinced, from the price at which skins had been sold at Kamtschatka, that he had not offered one half of their value, he found himself obliged to drive a bargain. He therefore, in his turn, demanded 1000 dollars. The Chinese merchant then advanced to 500; after which he offered Mr. King a private present of porcelain and tea, which amounted to 100 more: then he proposed to give the same sum in money; and at length rose to 700 dollars; upon which the Captain lowered his demands to 900. Here, each of them declaring that he would not recede, they parted: but the Chinese speedily returned with a list of East-Indian commodities, which he now desired that Mr. King would take in exchange, and which (as the Captain was afterwards informed) would have amounted in value, if faithfully delivered, to double the sum the merchant had before offered. Finding the Captain unwilling to deal in this mode, he finally proposed, that they should divide the difference, which Mr. King, weary of the contest, agreed to, and received the 800 dollars.

That fraud is the prevailing characteristic of the Chinese is corroborated by several proofs, the last of which was so late as the year 1786. Our correspondent, to whom we are under great obligations for divers communications, in the late remarks with which we have been favoured, says, as the first instance of Chinese imposition, that the pilot who came on board to pilot the ship to Macao roads, had the assurance to ask forty or fifty dollars, and took only ten. He further adds upon this head, that as all kinds of provisions, live stock, &c. are sold by weight, it is a common practice with the Chinese to give the hogs, fowls, ducks, geese, &c. plenty to eat and drink just before they are disposed of, to make them weigh the more: and also that unless a check is kept upon them, they will charge for

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CHINESE DRESSES.

1 a Dignified Benze 2 a Man 3 the Emperor in his Robes 4 a Woman of the first Rank.



CHINESE DRESSES.

Woolton sculp

1 a Peasant 2 a country Woman 3 a servant. Maid 4 a begging Benze.

ASIA.]

for articles not received. As a counterpoise to this description, it is candidly observed, that the Chinese women, called by the sailors washay girls, who come along-side the ships (for they are not allowed to come on board) to get their linen to wash, are most punctual in returning the same exactly folded and mended, and that there is scarcely ever known an instance of their dishonesty.

Thefts are punished here by either flogging by the mandarin, or cutting off their lock of hair, every Chinaman having one plaited almost down their backs, handrags or priests excepted. If a crime of more consequence is committed, they are strangled by mutes: but this punishment they only inflict when they wrong each other.

These washay girls, as they are called, live in sampans, which are small boats, and the habitations of whole families. A man, woman, and four children, often dwell in one of them, and have with them their cooking utensils, furniture, &c. Both men and women scull these sampans with one sculler very rapidly. It is very common to see a Chinese woman sculling with a child at her back, and two or three fat Chinamen in the sampan smoking within side.

It appears from the accounts of voyagers in general, who have touched at Canton, that the Chinese are a faithless, deceiving, cowardly, thievish set of people.

Previous to a visit made to any person of quality, a billet is always presented to the porter, setting forth the name and rank of life of the visitant; and if he be of equal rank with the person whom he visits, he is received at the hall door by the master, two of his domestics holding before him a large fan, which is removed upon the visitant entering the hall. It is then the ceremony begins, with many bendings of the knee, and bowings of the body on both sides, complimenting each other with their respective titles, and taking the right and left side of each other by turns. These ceremonies over, the guest is conducted to a chair, and when seated declares the intention of his visit. After a short conversation tea is brought; and when that is over, they make their obeisance to each other, and take leave with much bowing on both sides.

Upon the birth day of a considerable mandarin, people of the first quality assemble, and proceed in bodies to his palace, taking sweetmeats and other presents with them. Upon entering the hall they stand in rows, and make a most profound reverence. One of them then taking a cup of liquor, presents it to the mandarin, saying, "Behold the liquor which gives joy." Another with sweetmeats, says, "Behold the sugars of long life." Then others of the company repeat the same ceremonies.

A mandarin of inferior rank, on meeting his superior, instantly stops his sedan, and makes a most profound reverence. If two of equal rank meet, they salute each other in their sedans, by crossing their hands, and raising them to their heads, which they repeat till they are entirely out of each other's sight.

The custom among the great at giving an entertainment is to introduce as many tables as there are guests invited, unless the great number of visitants render it necessary to place two at a table. These tables stand in a line on each side of the great hall, which is adorned with pictures, flower-pots, and china-ware. The tables being placed directly opposite to each other, the guests face one another as they sit. There are neither table-cloths or napkins, but the fore part of each table is embellished with embroidered silk, and the whole of it handsomely japanned. On the tables are large dishes of meat ready carved, piled pyramidically, with flowers and citrons at the top of the table. They have neither forks or spoons, but eat with little ivory sticks. After several dishes have been served, basons of soup are brought, attended with very small loaves, which they break and put into the soup. Then tea is brought, and afterwards fruit: but before the fruit is served, the lord of the house takes his guests into the garden, or some other place. In the mean while the servants are em-

ployed, some in carrying water for the guests to wash their hands, others in cleaning the tables, and others of them in preparing the desert, which consists of the richest fruits, sweetmeats, &c.

While the company are regaling themselves, it is very common for players to introduce themselves, who, bowing several times to the very ground, present the principal guest at the entertainment with a book, in which are written, in golden letters, the titles of several plays; but the head guest refers the choice to a second, the second to a third, the third to a fourth, and so on; but all refusing, he at length chooses a play that he imagines will best please the company.

During the dramatic entertainment, the women are seated in another apartment, where, through a silk netting, they see the performance without being seen themselves. Between the acts the company are relieved with music, both vocal and instrumental. Of the latter kind are basons made of copper, drums which they beat with flat sticks, and flutes of different sorts. About the middle of the play one of the actors quits the stage, or rather floor, covered with a carpet, and collects money of the company. And at all these ceremonious feasts, the servants of the house make a collection likewise for the master's use, to reimburse him in part for the expences of the entertainment.

Parents here have an absolute controul over their children, no age nor office exempting them from their jurisdiction; hence the respect shewn by children to their parents.

The mere testimony of the father is sufficient for the conviction of his son when cited before a mandarin, without any corroborating circumstances.

If a son attempts the life of his father or mother, his body is cut to pieces and burnt. If he leaves any house or dwelling-place behind him, it is razed to the ground, and a monument erected in the place to perpetuate his infamy. Even the house, or houses, adjoining it, are also levelled with the earth.

The Chinese affect vast national superiority; even the meanest among them have a contempt for other countries; and before they were visited by the European missionaries, they looked upon themselves so superior to the rest of mankind, that they treated all other nations as Barbarians. They had conceived the most extravagant ideas of their own country as to its situation. Upon one of the jesuitical missionaries, who visited them, presenting a map of the globe, they desired him to explain it to them, for they were totally ignorant of the delineation of it. "This (says the father) is Europe, this Africa, and here is Asia. In Asia you see Persia, the Indies, and Tartary." "But where is China?" said they. "Here it is," replied the Priest. "Don't you see it? 'Tis in this little corner of the map." Upon which, overwhelmed with amazement, and looking at each other, they said, "It was little indeed."

Notwithstanding the strictest laws are made in China against gaming, the natives play till they sometimes lose their houses, estates, and even their children and wives. There is one most shocking custom here: when a man has more children than he thinks he can well provide for, the midwife receives orders to drown the next female infant, or throw it into the streets.

Courtship is conducted in China like matters of gallantry in other countries. There are certain women fixed upon for the purpose of procuring husbands for maidens; for as the latter are kept confined in their apartments, and the young men who are to be their husbands, are not allowed to see them till the day of marriage, they are under a necessity of relying entirely upon those women, or confidants. The young people are never suffered to treat upon the subject of their nuptials; the parents settle every thing themselves; and though in other countries it is the custom for women to bring portions to their husbands, here husbands pay a sum of money to the parents of the bride, which is generally laid out in cloaths, &c. for her. Then follow certain

certain ceremonies, the chief of which consist in the relations on both sides sending to demand the name of the intended bridegroom and bride, and in making them presents. The relations of the bride, who fix on the day of the nuptials, frequently consult the calendar for a fortunate day: in the mean time the man sends his intended bride some jewels, pendants and the like. At least this is the custom with wealthy people.

Upon the day appointed for the celebration of the nuptials the bride is put into a sedan magnificently adorned, and her baggage of cloaths, ornaments and trinkets are carried after her in chests, by the domestic servants, and other persons hired on purpose, who also carry lighted flambeaux in their hands, though it be noon-day: the grand sedan is preceded by music, and followed by the relations and friends of the bride. The nearest of kin carries in his hand the key of the sedan (for the windows of it are grated up and locked) and gives it to the bridegroom as soon as the procession reaches his house, who waits at his own door, dressed, in order to receive her: and as this is the first interview between him and the young lady, it is easy to conceive with what eager curiosity he unlocks the door of the sedan. Some, dissatisfied with their lot, immediately shut the door again, and send the poor girl back with her relations, rather chusing to lose the money they have given, than be united with a person they do not like: this, however, is seldom the case.

As soon as the bride steps out of her chair, the bridegroom presents his hand to her, and leads her into a hall, where a table is brought for them in particular, the rest of the company sitting at other tables, the men in one apartment of the hall, and the women in another; but before the bride and bridegroom sit down, they make four reverences to Tien, a supposed spirit presiding in heaven. When seated at table, they pour wine on the ground before they begin to eat, and set apart some of the provisions for their idols.

The moment each of them tastes of the victuals on table, the bridegroom rises up and invites his lady to drink: upon which she rises also, and returns him the compliment. After this two cups of wine are brought, of which they drink part, and pour the residue into another cup, out of which they afterwards drink alternately; and this last part of the ceremony ratifies the nuptials. The bride then goes among the ladies, and spends the day with them, while the bridegroom treats his friends in a separate apartment.

No man, except the emperor, can (consistently with the laws of China) marry more than one wife: he, however, has the privilege of taking as many concubines into his house as he pleases; but these must be obedient to the wife, and treat her as their mistress. The emperor has three wives, and the number of his concubines is estimated at about 3000, who are called Con-gu, or ladies of the palace.

If a wife elopes from her husband she is sentenced to be whipped, and the husband may dispose of her as a slave: if she marries another man, the first husband can cause her to be strangled. If a man quits his wife and family, the wife, after an absence of three years, has the privilege of presenting a petition to a mandarin, laying open her situation; and the mandarin, in such case, can authorise her to take another husband: she, however, would be very severely punished were she to marry without this previous mode of application. In certain cases a man may put away his wife: thus for instance, divorcing a wife is allowed of, not only for adultery, but for a bad temper, a clamorous tongue, disobedience, theft, barrenness, or indeed for any contagious disorder: but though the law on these occasions authorise a divorce, it is seldom put in force among persons of condition: there are, indeed, examples of it among the lower orders of the people. Some of the men are so very jealous, that they will scarce suffer their wives to speak in private, even to any of their near relations of the male kind.

The funeral solemnities of the Chinese are very sin-

gular, and worthy of attention. When a person of rank dies, they first wash the corpse, and after embalming it, dress it in the richest robes, and then expose it to view in a raised alcove, before which the wives, children, relations and friends, prostrate themselves; near the coffin is an image of the deceased, or else some carved work, with his name in large characters, and surrounded with flowers, perfumes and flambeaux. The coffin is varnished and gilt: and here it is necessary to remark, that the Chinese like to have their coffins made in their life-times: even the poorest among them will find means to be at this expence.

The sons of some of the great men, to show their regard for the memories of their deceased fathers, will keep their bodies in their houses unburied even two or three years; and this sacred filial veneration proceeds from the extensive and absolute authority which the father had exercised over the son; for the father is not only master of his son's estate, but also of his concubines and children, who, whenever they offend him, he may sell and enslave.

The funeral procession begins with a great number of persons carrying little pasteboard figures, representing slaves, tyges, eunuchs, camels, horses, &c. Then come the daughters and the wife and concubines of the deceased, who are carried in sedans; and though they are not seen, they are sufficiently heard, for they cause the air to resound with their lamentations. The burial-place is always without the town in a sort of grotto built on purpose. It consists generally of three rooms, and is surrounded with little groves of pines or cypress.

When the procession reaches the sepulchre, the coffin is placed in a vault, and perfumes are burnt; the figures of pasteboard are also burnt, and libations and meat-offerings made to the deceased; for these people have an idea that the spirits in the other world receive the offerings thus made, and that the different representations of the pasteboard figures become realized for their use and emolument.

So attached are these people to their funeral solemnities, and such is the veneration in which they hold the deceased, that they despise foreigners for abandoning the sepulchres of their ancestors, and exposing them to the hazard of dying in a remote country, without having relations with them to pay their last tribute of affection.

As to public festivals or rejoicings in China, the two principal are celebrated, one in the beginning and the other about the middle of January. The former is kept in visiting, feasting, making presents, &c. That of the middle of the month is called the Feast of the Lanterns, when every family, both of city and country, on the sea-coast, or on the rivers, light up large painted lanterns, stuck full of wax candles or small lamps, representing cavalcades, ships under sail, armies engaging, horses galloping, spectres, nimbies and other objects.

It is asserted by many that this grand anniversary festival had its origin from the following circumstance: a certain mandarin, in former times, who was greatly caressed by his people, having an only daughter drowned by falling into a river, he looked for her a whole night by the light of lanterns, all the inhabitants of the district following him with lanterns and torches to assist in searching for his darling child. The particular affection which the people had for their mandarin, or else the singularity of the adventure set them to work with their lanterns the same night of the year following; and this custom gradually spreading, occasioned, in time, a public festival throughout the empire.

SECTION IV.

Divers Manufactures. Mode of Printing in China.

THE produce of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of china, and called by the ancients porcelain, is an object of great importance to this

this country. Though the natives affect to keep the process of its preparation a secret, it is known beyond a doubt, that the grand article is calcined earth. They make every kind of representation in this sort of ware, as idols, animals, &c. Many of those figures known in Europe by the name of Chinese baboons, are images of the gods they worship.

It is a pity that their workmen do not understand the art of designing a little better; for though they acquit themselves tolerably well in drawing flowers, and in some other imitations, yet their representations of animals are, for the most part, very awkward figures. This must be either the effect of ignorance in the rules of symmetry and proportion, or must proceed from an affectation of the grotesque.

Silks, according to the most authentic accounts, were originally fabricated in this country, where silk worms are supposed to have originated. The silks most esteemed are Nankin damasks of various colours, satins, taffeties, brocades, gauzes, &c. These, when quite new, have a very fine and handsome appearance, but their beauty soon fades. A strong durable satin, called Touan-tse, is much esteemed; it is sometimes plain, and sometimes figured with representations of birds, trees, flowers, and particularly dragons: for the figure of a dragon is a very favourite representation with the Chinese, on account of the peculiar veneration they have for the memory of a celebrated dragon, which, agreeable to their fabulous antiquity, inspired their great legislator Fo-hi. Their colours consist of the juices of herbs and flowers, which so effectually penetrate the silk, that the stain always remains in it.

Having thus far treated of the silks, we shall now say something of the silk-worm. The worm, when it leaves its egg, is no bigger than the head of a common pin. It feeds upon the mulberry leaf, and grows to the size of a caterpillar, after which it no longer eats, but prepares for its dissolution. It wraps itself in a kind of silken ball spun from its own bowels, its head separates from its body, and it in every respect changes from its original form. It hath apparently neither life or motion. However, after remaining in this state some time, it awakes to a new being, and appears a different kind of insect. It resembles a large moth or butterfly; and in this last stage the female propagates the species by laying a prodigious number of eggs, after which she dies.

This valuable worm is composed of several elastic springs; and, from one extremity to the other, it has a kind of little nerve, which we will call the spine: this spine, placed in the center of its body, and continued through its whole length, sustains two other nerves or strings: one of these is the heart, which is composed of many oval vessels: the other, which is the lungs, is double, and appears to be an assemblage of several rings, extending towards the two sides of the insect, and between which are certain orifices that correspond with those distributed along the exterior sides. It is thro' these apertures that the air flows to the lungs, and by its spring and expansion promotes the circulation of the chyle or humour which nourishes the insect.

It is necessary to add, that the worm is perfectly black when it first comes out of the egg. In a few days it begins to assume a whitish hue, or ash grey: after this its coat sullies, and becomes ragged; at which time the insect casts it off, and appears in a new habit. It increases in bulk, and becomes more white, though a little inclining to a bluish cast: then divesting itself of its skin, it appears in its third habit, when its colour, head, and whole form, are so metamorphosed, that it appears quite another insect. In a few days it becomes changed to a bright yellow: so that from the time of its leaving the egg, it hath divested itself of three different coverings. It continues feeding a short time longer, and then renouncing all society, wraps itself in its little silken ball as already mentioned.

This curious insect at first seems to labour without design, and forms only a sort of flue or down. This

No. 21.

is its first day's employment. On the second it begins to form the outside of the cone or ball, in the midst of the loose silk or flue made the day before: and on the third day it is entirely obscured. In the space of a week the cone is completed, and the worm changes to a chrysalis, wrapped in its little silken tomb, without feet, head, or any distinct part. The cone is like a pidgeon's egg, and is more pointed at one end than the other. A female silk-worm sometimes lays 500 eggs.

The Chinese have two methods of bringing up their silk-worms. They either suffer them to range on the mulberry trees, or keep them in rooms; but the latter method is productive of the finest silk.

Prior to the introduction of paper into China, which, according to the chronologers of that country, was about the second century of the Christian æra, the Chinese used to express their sentiments by means of carved letters, or rather hieroglyphics, which were cut in blocks of wood; and these boards, or wooden leaves, being fastened together, formed books. Some of these, we are informed, with the characters still legible, are to be found at this time in China, but they are deemed valuable reliques by the Chinese antiquaries.

The Chinese soon adopted another method upon pieces of silk and linen, cut into different forms, according to the size of the book or volume intended: till at length one Tsai-lun, an ingenious mandarin, invented a paper made of the bark of trees. The trees principally chosen were the mulberry, bamboo, elm, and cotton; but they use only the second skin of the bark, which is soft and white: this is steeped in the mud of some standing water, then washed clean, and spread in a dry ditch, where it is covered with lime; and lastly, to finish the bleaching part, it is separated into threads, and dried in the sun. It is then boiled in a cauldron, and afterwards reduced to a paste by a machine. Then they take some water, in which the branches of the *koteng*, a shrub, hath been soaked, in order to make it sly, and mix it with the matter the paper is made with. The whole then becoming a clammy liquid, and being poured into large reservoirs, they, with their proper moulds, take up the surface of the liquor, which in an instant almost becomes paper. The moulds are long and broad, and the bottom made of threads of bamboo; so that there are sheets ten, twelve, or perhaps thirteen feet in length. They afterwards dip every sheet of paper in allum water, when it has the denomination of fan-paper: for in the Chinese language, the word *fan* signifies allum. The ink is prevented from sinking into the paper by the allum, which gives it an agreeable lustre besides. The paper is in general full as white, and is finer, and much softer, than any we have in Europe; but it is more apt to crack, as well as to become damp and worm-eaten; and, if not very carefully preserved, it is less durable. That made from the bamboo is more subject to crack than any; though, perhaps, the dipping it in allum-water may, in general, occasion this defect. The paper made from the cotton trees is the most delicate, and most generally used, for it is as durable as any European paper.

The Chinese do not write with a reed like the Arabians, or with a crayon like the Siamese, or with a pen like the Europeans, but with an hair pencil. They make use of a piece of polished marble, hollowed at one end to hold water, wherein they dip their stick of ink, and then gently rubbing it, there is in a few moments produced a fluid ink. They do not hold their pencils sloping as we do our pens, but perpendicular to the paper. They write from top to bottom in columns, and begin their books where ours end; that is, they begin at the right hand side of the paper, and proceed to the left, like the Hebrews. But their paper is so very thin, it will not bear writing on both sides of it.

Their method of printing is not at all like ours. They lay claim to the invention of this art, at least 400 years before it was practised by the Europeans. As we have but twenty-four letters, and those are capable of composing whole volumes, it is not necessary that the

compositor

compositor have more than a certain quantity of these characters, sufficient for a sheet or half sheet of pages, as the volume may be done, making one or two complete frames, (or forms, as stiled in the printing-office,) and enough to keep him employed while these are working off at the press; because when the proper number is printed, he distributes his types into their respective boxes, and with the same letters composes a fresh frame or form; so that a very large book may be printed with a moderate number of characters. But the Chinese, who do not practise this most useful and admirable method, are under a necessity of using a prodigious number of characters, as they have properly no letters, but different marks of all the different words in their language. Instead of types, they cut their characters on wooden blocks. When an author is about to print his manuscript, he gets it fairly transcribed on fine transparent paper; then the engraver glues each leaf upon a smooth block, with the face of the type to the wood, and then cuts away the wood, leaving only the types, which is effected with such a degree of nicety, that, when printed off, they so exactly resemble the original, as to render it difficult to distinguish the print from the hand-writing. This method of doing business, it must be allowed, is subject to great inconveniencies, on account of the necessity of multiplying the number of blocks of wood, and the length of the time taken up in engraving; and, as the pages are separately worked off, it must be a long time before a volume can be completed. But then, on the other hand, it is to be considered, that the Chinese engraver works his characters almost as fast as the European printer composes his. This could not, however, be supposed to be done, without considering that the Chinese characters are a sort of short-hand, some of which not only express words, but whole sentences. Moreover, when the whole copy is engraved, the author can order to be printed only just such a number of books as he thinks he shall have occasion for; by which means he consequently avoids that loss which European authors and booksellers sustain from the number of superfluous printed copies.

SECTION V.

Arts and Sciences cultivated by the Chinese. Dramatic Exhibitions.

THERE are but few of the Chinese who apply themselves to any of the speculative sciences. Moral philosophy has always been their principal study, and this they reduce to two principal heads, viz. the reciprocal duties between parents and children, and between prince and people. Between polity and morality they make no distinction: the art to govern well, and the art to live well, are one and the same principle with them.

The sages of China have produced the most excellent moral books, and have suited their stile and tenets to the most ordinary capacities; studying more to instruct the uninformed, than to acquire applause to themselves. Learning is the only path to preferment there, and none but the literati are governors of cities and provinces.

The libraries of China are numerous, elegantly built, superbly ornamented, and enriched with grand collections.

It appears from the *chu-king*, a canonical book of great antiquity, that these people had cultivated the science of astronomy with much application. That book sets forth, that in the reign of the emperor Yu, which was near 2000 years before Christ, there lived Hi and Ho, two noted astronomers, who, however, were in very great disgrace, for not prognosticating an eclipse of the sun which happened in their life-time. In the same book mention is made of another eclipse of the sun, that happened 2155 years before the Christian æra, the truth of which stands confirmed by the calculation

of the jesuit P. Schaal. Gaubil, the jesuit, has observed, that from above 120 years before the same æra, they have given the number and extent of their contractions, what stars answered the solstices and equinoxes, the declination of the stars, the distance of the tropics and two poles. He adds, they were acquainted with the motions of the sun and moon, and also of the planets and fixed stars; though they did not determine the motion of the latter till 400 years after Christ.

Their learned historian Confucius has been found exact in his calculation of eclipses in general, according to the declaration of the jesuits: and the Chinese are at this very day possessed of several astronomical books, which they assert were composed under the dynasty of Han, who reigned before the birth of Christ; by which it appears that these people, for upwards of 2000 years past, have been acquainted with the solar year, as consisting of 365 days and some hours; the apparent diurnal motions of the sun and moon from east to west; the meridional altitude of the sun by the shadow of gnomons; the right ascension of the stars, and the time of their passing through the meridian; as likewise the revolutions of Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, Venus, and Mercury: and their observations in these particulars have been pretty near the same with ours in point of exactness: though they have no tables for the retrograde and stationary aspects of the planets.

They divide their year into twelve lunar months, some of them consisting of twenty-nine, others of thirty days; and every five years they have an intercalary month, to adjust the lunations with the sun's course. They reckon by weeks as we do, and in like manner give the name of a planet to each of the seven days, and according to the same order. Their astronomical day begins at midnight, which is divided into twelve equal parts, each answering to two of our hours. Tho' they are not acquainted with the art of making clocks, they have solar quadrants, and other chronometers. Among other simple inventions in private use, for the purpose of measuring time, they have a little perfumed pastil of a conic figure, which they burn in the night. This pastil is marked, to shew the particular time it is made to burn, and hath generally five divisions, answering to the five watches of the night; so that those who wish to be waked at a particular time, hang a small metal ball by a string to the pastil, which at the time burns the string, and the weight falling into a copper basin, awakes the person sleeping.

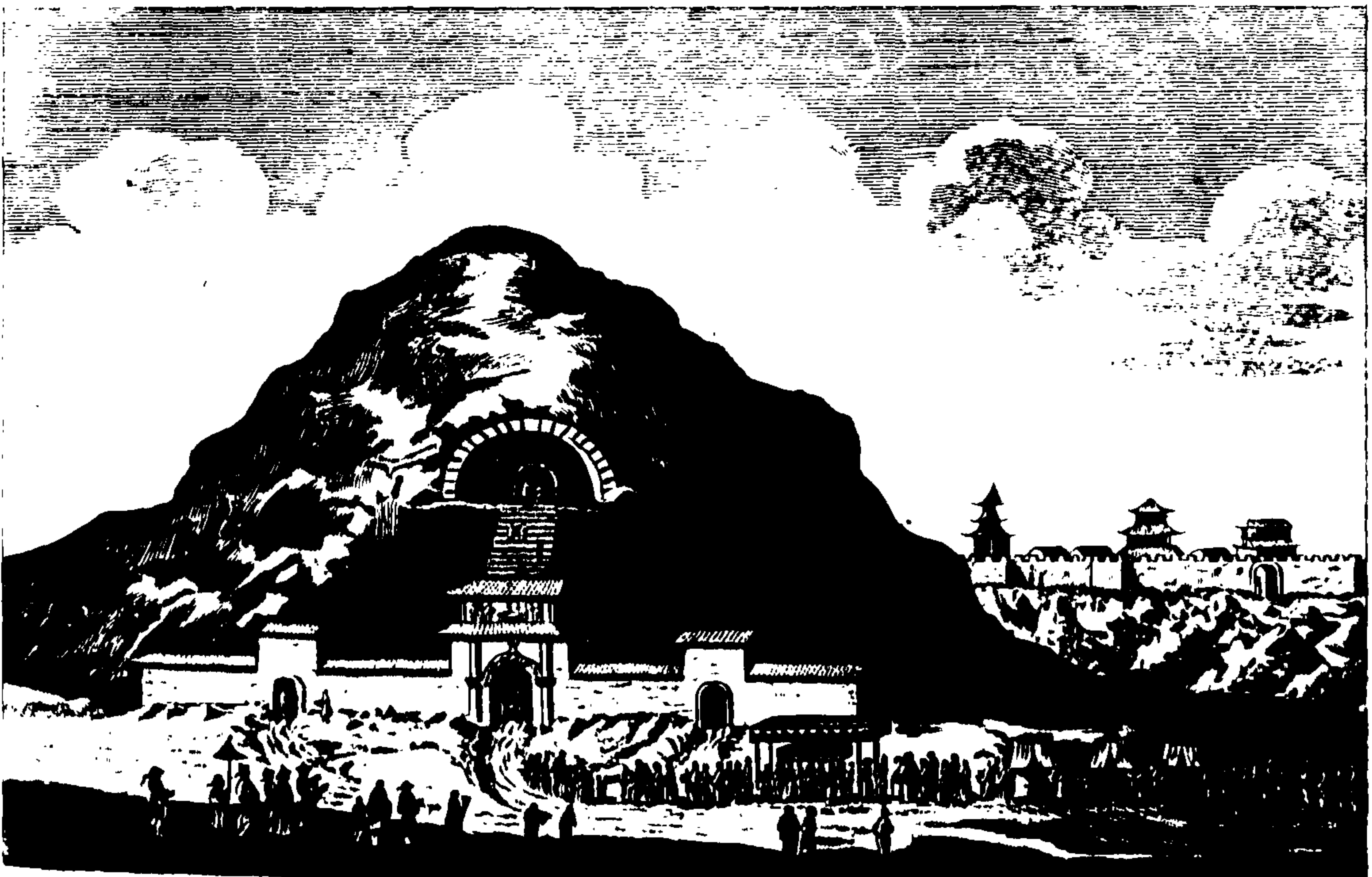
As the skill of the Chinese in natural philosophy and anatomy is very superficial, it cannot be supposed they are acquainted much with physic. However, they pretend to have applied themselves closely to it even from the establishment of their empire. Certain it is, they have some very good practical physicians, the greatest part of whose medicines consists of herbs, roots, fruits, seeds, &c. which are, for the most part, good stomachics and gentle purgatives. By the beating of the pulse, they pretend to know the cause of any disorder, and in what part of the body it lies: and, indeed, they have discovered pretty exactly, by this means, the symptoms of complaints. They say that the pulse of a man differs from that of a woman, and that it changes with the seasons of the year. To form a decisive judgment of the cause of complaint in a patient, they lay his arm upon a pillow, and then apply their fingers to the artery. At first they touch it gently, then a little closer, and lastly press it very hard. They take time to examine the beating, and distinguish the differences according as the motion is more or less quick, uniform or irregular, which they observe with the most attentive exactness. According to the variations, they pronounce what part of the body is affected, how long the disorder will hold, and whether the patient will get the better of it or not.

Though these people lay claim to the invention of music, and bringing it to high perfection, their concerts have no dependence on a diversity of tones, or a difference of parts. They have no musical notes, nor any sign

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— A CHINESE PAGODA. —



— A CHINESE SUPERSTRUCTURE. —

ASIA.]

sign to denote the variations which constitute harmony. They learn tunes by the ear, and when these are played on the instruments, or sung by a good voice, they are not disagreeable even to an European.

The Chinese have divers musical instruments of their own invention; some made of metal, others of stone. One hath some resemblance to our trumpet. They have some covered with skins, like our drums. They have wind instruments of two or three kinds, as flutes, and a sort of little organ, which yields an agreeable sound. They have likewise many sorts of stringed instruments, the strings of which are, for the most part, made of silk, few of them of gut. The generality of them consists only of three strings. They have one instrument with seven strings, which is in great esteem among them, and not disagreeable when played by a masterly hand.

It appears, from the best authority, that the invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan.

SECTION VI.

Public Buildings, great Wall of China, Architecture, Habitations, &c.

THE bridges built over the rivers in China are of stone, and of very strong workmanship. Some of them are very handsome structures, and of great length. The bridge of Suen-tcheou, in the province of Fo-Kien, is built over an arm of the sea, and supported by above 300 pillars. Its length is about 2500 feet, its breadth 20; and the stone work from pier to pier, at the top, consists of large single massy stones.

There is a bridge called the Iron Bridge, in the province of Koeitchou, which consists of chains of iron, reaching over a river extremely deep and rapid, though not very broad. On each bank are raised two massy piles of masonry, to which are fastened chains that cross to the opposite side, and on these are laid broad planks. In one province they fix poles of wood into the rocks, and on these lay broad boards. Aukward, however, as these are, the country people pass over them without fearing any danger.

The Chinese have given amazing proofs both of art and industry, in the projection and execution of the plan for their high roads, which are broad, commodious, well paved, handsome, and secure. The high road in the province of Chen-si may be deemed a prodigy, it reaching over mountains and hideous precipices. Upwards of 1000 men are reported to have been employed in the making this road, who levelled some of the mountains, formed communications by arches with others, and finished it with surprising expedition.

The pagods, or temples, erected to their fabulous deities, are very numerous. They consist in general of one tower, terminating in a dome. Some are built of brick, and others of hard tempered earth.

The celebrated Porcelain Tower stands at a small distance from Nan-king, and is looked upon as the handsomest and grandest building in all Asia. This famous temple, which, by the Chinese, is stiled the Temple of Gratitude, consists of a prodigious number of pieces of timber, differently boxed, and let one into another, which is looked upon as no inconsiderable embellishment in Chinese architecture. It must be acknowledged, that this labyrinth of beams, couples, girders, &c. has something in it striking and amazing; though, in truth, it is no better than a regular kind of embarrassment and confusion, proceeding from the ill taste of this nation for architecture, who are entire strangers to that noble simplicity so justly admired in our best buildings.

The most stupendous building in China is the great wall, begun about 2000 years ago. The Chinese erected it by way of defending themselves against the Tartars. It is a master-piece of industry, genius, and per-

severance, excelling every fortification attempted by the ancients.

As China is separated from Tartary by a chain of mountains, this wall, which begins in the province of Chen-si, on the side of Tartary, is continued over mountains and vallies to the 42d degree of north latitude, and then reaches southward as far back as to the 39th. It is principally built of brick, and bound with the strongest mortar, inasmuch, that though it has stood many centuries, it still continues firm. It is about 500 leagues in length, including its many turnings and windings, and the intermediate spaces supplied by the mountains, which, in several places, are a natural fortification; and in many others there is a wide ditch only; so that of the real wall there is not more than 100 leagues. This wall, during the reigns of the Chinese emperors, was guarded continually by 1,000,000 soldiers. However, since the conquest of the Chinese by the Tartars, they are satisfied with only guarding particular parts of it.

Notwithstanding the different representations of travellers, it may be affirmed, from the best authority, that the greatest elevation of this wall does not exceed 30 feet; and that its breadth is about sufficient for eight or ten men to stand abreast upon it.

The cities and towns of the Chinese in general are built on a square model: two handsome streets from east to west, and from north to south, cross each other in the center, and divide the town into quarters. Where these streets intersect each other there is a large opening, from whence are seen the four great gates.

The chief cities, and capital towns, are enclosed by very high walls: and those towns to which the Chinese give the appellation of war-towns, have strong ramparts lined with thick walls, and flanked with towers; the whole encompassed by broad ditches. In some of the streets are the triumphal arches and pagods.

Their houses are erected upon stone pedestals, and consist of a porch at the entrance, a hall, and three or four chambers, all on the ground floor. The merchants have frequently a story above the ground floor, in which their goods are deposited.

The Chinese find great fault with our stories rising one above another. They express their surprise at our hazarding our necks in climbing up our stair-cases. When one of their emperors was shewn some models of European houses, he said that Europe must certainly be a small and pitiful country, since, for want of room to build, the natives were forced to mount up into the air.

SECTION VII.

Description of Pe-king, the Metropolis, Nan-king, Soutcheou, and Canton. Chinese Navigation and Barks.

PE-KING, the metropolis of China, is situated in latitude 40 deg. north. It is an exact square, and divided into two cities; that which contains the imperial palace, which is called the new, or the Tartar city, because inhabited by Tartars ever since they conquered the empire: the other is called the old, or Chinese city, as inhabited by them. The circuit of both without the suburbs measures about six leagues.

The city is enclosed by stupendous walls, being 150 feet in height, and broad enough for several horsemen to ride abreast upon the top of them. At proper distances are large square towers. The ditch is dry, tho' very deep and wide. The gates are of an extraordinary elevation, and the architecture of them in tolerable good taste. At each gate are two great towers, one without, and the other within. They consist of nine stories, each with port-holes; and at the bottom is a spacious hall, where the officers and soldiers retire who come off guard.

The Tartar city has nine gates, two facing the east, two the west, two the north, and three the south. The Chinese city has only seven, to each of which answers a suburb. The latter city is much the most populous.

The

The streets in general are as straight as a line. The grand street is 120 feet wide, and a league in length. The shops on each side of the street, furnished with a beautiful variety of porcelain, varnished ware, and the richest silks, exhibit a most pleasing picture. Every tradesman places a shop-board before the door of his shop, containing, in large characters, an account of the different articles of trade that he has to dispose of.

Incredible numbers of passengers throng the streets, but not a single woman is ever seen among the multitude. Persons who ride in chairs are often under the necessity of having an horseman to go before them to clear the way. Several causes combine to produce these crowds: as for example, besides the vast number of peasants who repair hither from the neighbouring country places, with their camels, horses, mules, and other beasts of burden, the greatest part of the mechanics, instead of keeping to their shops, go about the town in quest of business, carrying with them the several implements of their respective professions. Barbers, for instance, go about ringing bells to get customers; they carry with them a stool, basin, towel, pot and fire; and when any person calls to them, they run up to him, and placing their stool in a convenient place in the street, they shave the head, clean the ears, put the eye-brows in order, and brush the shoulders, all for the value of little more than an half-penny. They then ring their bell again, and are ready for another customer. The taylor, who ply in the streets, go home to the houses of their customers, and do their work there: they do not use thimbles as ours do, but tie a rag upon their thumbs; nor do they sit down to their work, but stand, except when they grow tired: the work is upon a table, and they stand close to it.

The motley crowd, busied in their several occupations, cause a vast confusion, while jugglers, ballad-singers and nostrum-mongers are encircled by their respective mobs; which reminds us of the following lines of a celebrated English poet:

With various haste here sev'ral ways they run,
Some to undo, and some to be undone:
While luxury and wealth, and war and peace,
Are each the others ruin and increase,
As rivers lost in seas; some secret vein
Thence re-conveys, there to be lost again;
While different avocations each pursues,
All have their secret aims, and private views.
Whether they spread forth pleasure's silken sails,
Watch folly's winds, and catch her fleeting gales;
Or full of business fly from street to street,
With looks important, and unwearied feet;
Or to the more ingenious arts inclin'd,
Make china-ware, or fans to catch the wind.
To self, of each pursuit the current flows,
There all their wishes, all their labours close;
Yet private ends assist the empire's aim,
For true self-love, and social are the same.

A man of rank never goes abroad without being attended by a great number of his domestics: if he be a mandarin of the first rank, he is not only attended by these, but also by his subordinate mandarins, who also, to increase the pomp of his retinue, are all in particular dresses, attended by their valets; so that the train of one of these mandarins is of itself sufficient to embarrass a street.

From the multiplicity of passengers and carriages, the streets are always so incommoded, either with mud in the winter, or dust in the summer, that they are in both seasons very disagreeable. From these considerations it may be easily judged how populous Pe-king must be, when its streets can hardly contain one half of the people, who, according to the assertions of some authors, amount to six or seven millions. Others compute them at three, and some at only two.

Prostitutes are not suffered to live within the walls: their houses are of a particular kind, and many of them

lodge together, generally under the inspection of a man, who is responsible for any disturbance they occasion. In some provinces prostitutes are not tolerated at all.

All the principal streets are guarded by soldiers, who patrol night and day not only with thin swords, but with whips in their hands, with which they lash indifferently all persons concerned in any riot or breach of the public peace. Indeed, there is always in this city a garrison of 40,000 men to preserve good order and peace. There are no clubs, balls, or other nocturnal meetings here; and the soldiers take into custody all persons whom they see in the streets in the night-time, if they do not give a good account of themselves.

The emperor's palace is of vast extent. The apartments in general are superb and elegant, as, exclusive of the carved and gilded ceilings, they are furnished with paintings, tapestry, rich cabinets, and beautiful carpets.

As agriculture in general, and gardening in particular, is in great estimation in China, it is not to be wondered at that the royal gardens of Pe-king have justly challenged the admiration of the curious, and may be numbered among the wonders of the world. They are a kind of stupendous drama, in which the beauties and defects of nature and the works of art are admirably represented, in such a manner as to affect all the passions of the human soul.

These gardens contain innumerable buildings, some regularly elegant, others rurally simple; some of a grotesque nature, and others in imitation of ruins. Thus all the varieties of architecture are blended with the productions of nature; and the animal, vegetable, and mineral creation are happily united to complete a most astonishing scene.

Nan-king (a name signifying the court of the south, as Pe-king does the court of the north) is the capital of the province of Kiang-nan, and was for many ages the capital of the Chinese empire, as well as the residence of the emperors. It is the largest city in China, and was originally surrounded with a triple wall, measuring about sixteen leagues in circumference: but the palace, once famous for its splendor and magnificence, hath been destroyed, as well as many grand monuments. The streets of this city are narrow, but well paved; the houses low, but handsome; the shops spacious, and well furnished with goods. Nan-king is celebrated for its great number of libraries: it excels likewise in printing, and in artificers of most kinds: here, too, reside the most eminent doctors of the empire, as well as the greater part of such mandarins as have been discharged from their governments.

The number of its inhabitants is estimated at about four millions, including those who live in barks upon the water; and, indeed, wherever a city is situated on the banks of a canal or river, there is seen another large floating city of barks; so that the rivers and canals of China are in proportion as populous as the land.

The public buildings are rather mean, except a few temples, the city gates, and a tower of porcelain about two hundred feet in height.

Sou-tcheou, the second city of the province of Kiang-nan, may, in point of situation, be compared to Venice, though it far exceeds it in extent and populousness. It is four leagues in circumference, exclusive of the suburbs, which are very extensive: it has many canals of fine water, capable of bearing ships of heavy burthen: the people are conveyed to almost any part of the city in gondolas elegantly painted. The commerce and riches of this city, the beauty of its situation, the fruitfulness of the country around, the concourse of visitants, and the natural politeness of the inhabitants, render it, in the fullest sense of the term, the Paradise of China.

Canton is the capital city and sea-port of the province of Quang-tong. The houses stand very thick, the streets are long, and rather narrow, almost all laid out by the line, and well paved, with triumphal arches in several of them: here are also some temples of tolerable good workmanship, in which the bonzes live.

As Canton is situated on the banks of one of the finest rivers in China, deep enough for the largest ships, all the curiosities of the empire are brought hither. In going up the river the eye is delighted with one of the most charming prospects in nature, being nearly encompassed with verdant fields, lawns, groves, and hills gently rising one above another. Both sides of the river are covered with barks, ranged on parallel lines, forming, as it were, streets and alleys; and in each of these barks reside a whole family: the meaner sort quit their bark in the morning, and repair to the fields or streets to earn their livelihood, and return to their families in the evening.

A principal share of the opulence of Canton flows from its commerce with the Europeans, who are not permitted to enter any other port in China.

As the accounts of Canton hitherto given are deemed greatly exaggerated, it is presumed, that the subsequent remarks collected by Captain King, which he received from several of our countrymen long resident there, together with those of later date, from the correspondent before mentioned, may not be improper.

The circumference of Canton, including the old and new town, and also the suburbs, is about ten miles. With regard to its population, judging of the whole from what he saw in the suburbs, he is of opinion, that it falls considerably short of an European town of equal magnitude. Le Compte has estimated the number of its inhabitants at 1,500,000; Du Halde at 1,000,000; and M. Sonnerat affirms he has ascertained that their number does not exceed 75,000: but as this gentleman has not thought proper to communicate to us the grounds on which he founded his calculation, and, besides, seems to be as much inclined to depreciate whatever relates to the Chinese nation, as the jesuits may be to magnify it, his opinion does not lay claim to an implicit assent. The following particulars may, perhaps, enable our readers to form a judgment on this point with some degree of accuracy.

It is certain that a Chinese house, in general, occupies more space than is commonly taken by houses in Europe; but the proportion of four or five to one, as suggested by M. Sonnerat, must be acknowledged to go far beyond the truth. To this we may add, that a considerable number of houses in the suburbs of Canton, are kept only for the purposes of commerce, by merchants and opulent tradesmen, whose families reside entirely within the walls. On the other hand, a Chinese family is more numerous than an European. A mandarin, in proportion to his rank and property, has from five to twenty concubines. A merchant has from three to five. A person of the latter class at Canton had, indeed, five and twenty and six and thirty children: but this was mentioned to Captain King as a very uncommon circumstance. A wealthy tradesman has generally two; but people of an inferior station very rarely have more than one. They have at least double the number of servants employed by Europeans of the same rank. If, therefore, we suppose a Chinese family to be larger by one third, and an European house less by two thirds, than each other, a city of China will comprehend only half the number of people contained in a town of the same extent in Europe. According to these *postulata*, the city and suburbs of Canton may in all probability contain about 150,000 inhabitants.

Captain King found various opinions entertained respecting the number of inhabited sampans; but none computed them to be under 40,000. They are moored in rows close to each other, a narrow passage being left at intervals, for the boats to pass and repass on the river. The Tygris, at Canton, being of greater width than the Thames at London, and the whole river, for the space of at least a mile, being covered in this manner, it does not appear that this estimate of their number is at all exaggerated; and if it be allowed, the inhabitants in the sampans alone, each of which contains one family, must amount to almost thrice the number affirmed by M. Sonnerat to be in the whole city.

No. 21.

Fifty thousand men constitute the military force of the province of Quang-tong, of which Canton is the capital. It is asserted, that 20,000 are stationed in the city and its environs: and Captain King was assured, that on occasion of some commotion which had happened at Canton, 30,000 troops had been drawn together in the course of a few hours.

The streets of this city are long, and most of them are narrow, and destitute of uniformity. They are well paved with large stones, and, in general, kept extremely clean. The houses are built of brick, and are only one story high. They have, for the most part, two or three courts backwards, in which are erected the warehouses for the reception of merchandize, and, in the houses within the city, the apartments for the females. Some of the meaner sort of people, though very few, have their habitations composed of wood.

The houses of the European factors are built on a fine quay, having a regular facade of two stories towards the river. They are constructed, with respect to the inside, partly after the Chinese, and partly after the European mode. Adjoining to these are a considerable number of houses which belong to the Chinese, and are let out by them to the commanders of vessels, and to merchants, who make only an occasional stay.

As no European is permitted to take his wife with him to Canton, the English supercargoes live together at a common table, which is maintained by the company; and each of them has also an apartment appropriated to himself, consisting of three or four rooms. The period of their residence rarely exceeds eight months in a year; and as, during that time, they are almost constantly occupied in the service of the company, they may submit with the less uneasiness and regret to the restrictions under which they live. They very seldom make any visits within the walls of Canton, except on public occasions.

The Chinese boast that they were acquainted with the art of navigation, and the Indian Seas, long before the birth of Christ. They are acquainted with the compass, and pretend to be the inventors of it. The Chinese sailors are superstitious enough to worship their compass, and offer perfumes to it in sacrifice.

Their barks have generally two masts, and sometimes three. Most of them, especially those used for merchandize, have flat bottoms, and are, from head to stern, of one and the same breadth. The masts and sails have a very rude aspect; the former being of rough trees just as produced by nature, except that the twigs and branches are lopped off. The sails are of mat, strengthened with pieces of bamboo. They have another sort of bark, not unlike our galleys, which they not only use in their rivers, but on the sea-coasts, to sail between the islands; they have three masts, and in calms go with oars.

The dealers in salt and wood convey those articles in booths built on rafts. They fasten them together with osier bands, and so form their floats five feet high, and about ten broad. They have no fixed measure for their length, some extending half a league. At convenient distances they erect huts or booths; and as every length of timber is only fastened to the next by bands, the whole united raft moves easily any way, like the link of a chain, and is very conveniently managed in the windings of any river. In the huts, or booths, the people eat, drink, and sleep, and often sell them with their salt and wood. These rafts are sometimes thus conveyed five or six hundred leagues, and seen at a distance like so many little floating towns.

SECTION VIII.

Parade and Ceremonies relative to the Emperor. His immense Revenue and boundless sway.

FROM the stile of the emperor, and the adoration paid him by his subjects, it might be imagined that he was more than mortal. He is called *Holy Son of Heaven*,
M m m

Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People. His subjects always prostrate themselves when before his throne, even if he be not sitting there; and if they see either his girdle or his robes, they must also fall prostrate on the ground. No person, even of the first rank in life, passes by his palace on horseback, or in a chair, but quits his seat before he arrives at it, and walks till he has got beyond it.

When the emperor goes to the temple of Tien with the offerings and sacrifices of gratitude, he appears in all the magnificence of eastern pomp. The procession commences with drums and trumpets. Four hundred magnificent lanterns, and as many flambeaux, then appear, diffusing a most grand illumination. Then come a great number of persons with spears, and twenty-four banners, with the signs of the Zodiac painted on them, which the Chinese divide into twelve parts: then fifty-six other banners follow these, representing the fifty-six constellations, to which the Chinese reduce all the stars. Then comes the emperor himself, who is on horseback, in rich apparel. He is attended by his pages, and 100 men with spears. The princes of the blood, mandarins, &c. then follow, in their proper habits, with 500 youths belonging to the palace, followed by 1000 footmen. Two grand chairs are next seen: one is borne by about 40 men; and the other, which is considerably larger, by upwards of 100. Then come chariots drawn by elephants, and some by horses, each attended by 50 men. The procession closes with 2000 mandarins of letters, and the same number of mandarins of arms, all in their proper dresses.

The revenues of the emperor of China are said to amount to 21,000,000*l.* a year; and his army is 770,000 strong. He has an unlimited power to declare war, proclaim peace, or conclude treaties. He takes cognizance of all important matters transacted in the six sovereign courts of Pe-king: but the management of the finances is under the direction of the officers of the second sovereign court: all the revenues of the state pass through their hands, they being the appointed guardians of the imperial treasure. The public revenues are not farmed, nor do they pass through the hands of several under receivers, but the chief magistrates of each city regulate and collect the levies, and remit them to the treasurer-general of the province, who transmits them to the tribunal of finances at Pe-king.

SECTION IX.

Classes of Rank, Authority, Privileges, and Offices, of the Mandarins.

THOUGH dignities in China are conferred on persons in proportion to their merit, strictly speaking none but the imperial family have any real title of distinction, in whose favour five honorary degrees of nobility are established. The title of prince is not only given to the sons of the emperor, but also to his sons-in-law; and to these latter are granted stipends adequate to their dignity, but no authority in consequence of marriage. A prince of the lowest rank, however, is superior to the first mandarin in the empire, and distinguishes himself by a yellow girdle.

The son of a mandarin ranks no higher on account of his birth than the son of a peasant. The emperors, indeed, confer certain titles answering to those of duke, earl, and viscount with us; but these do not descend.

As such deference is paid to genius and learning, the descendants of Confucius have been honoured with distinguished privileges for 2000 years: and it is from his illustrious family that the emperor always chooses a person of learning for governor of Ki-feou in Chan-tong, the place of nativity of that great philosopher.

There are several classes of mandarins. Those who are governors of provinces and cities are chosen by the emperor. Those are called mandarins of letters who have applied themselves to literature, and passed through several degrees prior to that of the doctorate. These men

have the direction of the political government of the empire: their number is from 13 to 14,000, and they are divided into nine classes: from the three first the emperor makes choice of his ministers and officers of the first rank, as the *colao*s or ministers of state, the judges of the supreme courts, the governors of the capital cities, the treasurers general of the provinces, the viceroys, &c.

As the mandarins are the representatives of the sovereign, a proportionate homage is paid to them, and the people address them on their knees when they are seated on their tribunal. Those of higher classes have always a pompous attendance when they appear in public. Four men carry them in a magnificent chair, the officers of their court walking before them; some carrying an umbrella, and others beating on a copper basin, to give notice of the mandarin's approach. Eight ensign bearers exhibit on their ensigns the titles of honour, in large characters, of this great man. These are succeeded by fourteen standard bearers, bearing the symbols of his office, viz. a dragon, phoenix, and other animals. Six people then are seen with little tablets, on which are inscribed the virtues of this mandarin. Two archers on horseback are also in the procession, riding in front of the principal guards, who carry large hooks ornamented with filken fringe. Some carry halberds, some maces, some axes, some whips, some slaves, and some hangers and cutlasses. Others carry chains of iron; and at length come two men loaded with a grand chest, containing the seal of his office, while two other persons beat upon kettle drums. The mandarin then appears, preceded by two standard-bearers and the captain of the guards. He is surrounded by pages and footmen, while an officer holds near him a large handsome fan. The procession is closed by guards and domestics. When he goes out in the night time, instead of flambeaux there are several large lanterns, on which are inscribed his title and qualities.

There are five classes of mandarins called, in general, mandarins of war, viz. the mandarins of the rear guard, the mandarins of the left wing, those of the right wing, those of the main body, and those of the vanguard. These five classes are under the jurisdiction of so many courts or tribunals, which are all subject to a sixth, viz. the fourth sovereign court at Pe-king, which is entrusted with the care of the military of the empire. The president of the sixth tribunal of war is always a grandee of the realm. His authority extends to all military persons. To him belongs the supreme command of the army: but should there be a war, the Chinese law prescribes, there shall, in such cases, be joined with him in commission a mandarin of letters, bearing the title of superintendant of arms; and there must be likewise appointed out of the same order two inspectors of his conduct. The generalissimo undertakes no enterprize without the consent of these three officers, who send a particular account of his operations to the fourth supreme court at Pe-king, that awful tribunal, to which even the general himself is accountable. These mandarins, or officers at war, are computed at no less than 18,000.

The poor sort of Chinese pay these mandarins great homage and respect, and never approach them till they make *grandee-chin-chin*, as they term it, which is putting their hands close together, and shaking them before the face.

SECTION X.

Civil and Ecclesiastical Establishments. State of Judaism, Mahometanism, and Christianity, in China.

THERE is much equity, as well as humanity, displayed in the mode of taxation in China. Every citizen, from the age of 20 to 60, pays a tribute proportionate to his income. If any persons neglect to pay, they receive the *ballinado*, or are thrown into prison; and sometimes a certain number of such aged persons are

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CHINESE MANDARINS.

1 of the State 2 of the Law 3 of the Military



CHINESE MERCHANTS, &c.

1 in the Summer Dress 2 in the Winter Dress 3 a Merchant's Wife

are quartered upon them, as government would otherwise have to maintain; and these live upon them at free cost till the emperor's demands are satisfied.

The penal laws of this country are cruel in the extreme. Theft is never punished with death the first or second time; the criminal is only burnt in the arm with an hot iron; but for the third offence he surely dies. The three capital punishments are, strangling, decapitation and cutting a person in pieces: the first of these is looked upon as the most favourable, as the latter is the most dreadful and shocking; for the criminal, whose fate it is to be cut in pieces, being tied fast to a stake, the skin of his head is stripped over his eyes, that he may not behold his own torments.

Adultery is punished with the bastinado; and murder with either beheading or strangling; the latter of these is accounted the least ignominious: the Chinese annex the idea of great infamy to the punishment of beheading; and the reason they assign for it is, that nothing more disgraceful can possibly happen to a person dying, than to preserve the human form as entire as it was given them by nature. Those who suffer this death are not allowed the usual ceremonies of interment.

Slaves who elope from their masters are marked in the left arm with a burning iron, besides receiving an hundred lashes.

The bastinado and whip are the most common punishments. In the execution of the first of these the delinquent is laid flat, with his face to the ground, and receives twenty, forty, sixty or an hundred strokes on his naked flesh. After the whipping is over, the sufferer is forced to fall at the feet of his judge, and return him thanks for his merciful correction. The number of stripes given to an offender is proportioned to the nature of the offence. The emperor himself sometimes commands this punishment to be inflicted upon great persons, and afterwards admits them to his presence as usual. Scurrilous language, or fighting with the fists in the street will incur this chastisement; nay, even if a common fellow on horseback does not dismount when a mandarin appears, or crosses the street in his presence, he receives eight or ten strokes. Masters use the same correction to their scholars, fathers to their children, and grandees to their domestics. The chastising instrument is a split bamboo.

Another instrument for punishing offenders is the cangue: it is a wooden collar or portable pillory, made of two flat pieces of wood, about two feet broad, and five or six inches thick, so hollowed as to encircle the neck, and rest upon the shoulders. When this instrument is fastened round the neck, the culprit can neither see his feet, nor put his hand to his mouth, but is under the necessity of being fed by some other person. This uneasy confinement he is forced to bear both day and night: it is heavier or lighter in proportion to the offence committed: some of them weigh near two hundred pounds; but the common sort about fifty or sixty. For some offences the delinquent is sentenced to wear the cangue for several months, and to appear with it in the public market, which is considered as a mark of the greatest infamy.

Sharers, gamblers, and disturbers of the peace, are often punished with the cangue; but they contrive various ways to relieve themselves, as by their friends walking on each side, and bearing the weight on their shoulders, by chains so framed as to support the cangue; some by kneeling rest the collar on the ground, and thus give themselves a temporary relief; and when they go to rest at night, their friends have some contrivance for them, so as they may lie at full length.

They use a kind of rack for the feet and hands to extort confession in treasonable cases; and there is still a much severer torture sometimes used on these occasions, which is opening the skin with scissars, and raising the flesh.

The office of executioner in China is so far from being attended with any disgrace, that it is esteemed

an honourable employment: he wears a girt even of yellow silk, which is the badge of the emperor's service; nay, one of the distinguishing ornaments of the princes of the blood; and his instrument of punishment is wrapped in silk of the same colour.

The prisons in China are spacious, commodious and clean: the usual number of persons confined in the jails of Canton only is computed at no less than 15,000, who are allowed to work at their several trades and occupations for a subsistence; for they are not maintained at the charge of government.

The manner of dispatching trials in China is very concise. They have no counsellors or lawyers: every man pleads for himself. The plaintiff draws up his grievance in writing, and takes it to the palace of the mandarin, where, beating on the drum at the gate, he immediately receives admittance. He then presents his declaration to an officer of justice, who takes it to the mandarin, and the adverse party is forthwith sent for; who, if found guilty, is immediately bastinadoed: but if the plaintiff be wrong in what he alleges, he loses his cause, and is bastinadoed himself.

With respect to the state of religion in China, it may be said to be divided into three sects, one of which acknowledges Confucius for their founder: the second, Lao-kium, and the third, Fo, or Foë.

Confucius was born 550 years before Christ, in the kingdom of Lou, which is now the province of Chan-tong: he was cotemporary with Pythagoras. In early life he gave proofs of a liberal genius, and, as he advanced in years, applied himself wholly to the study of philosophy, particularly to the moral part. By degrees his reputation spread through the empire, and he was soon at the head of 3000 followers, out of whom he made choice of seventy-two to propagate his doctrine in different places. He prudently avoided giving offence to the prejudices of his country, by a too zealous and violent attack upon its errors; his moderation and candour were equal with his genius and learning. In all his actions, as in all his discourses, he supported precept by example.

At the age of fifty-five he was raised to the dignity of first minister of the kingdom of Lou, his native country, which he governed with so much wisdom and respectable authority, that in a little time the face of things underwent a total change; but these happy effects of his good administration and zeal were of no long duration; for the king of Lou, seduced by the allurements of a woman, soon forgot the excellent advice and instructions of his minister. Confucius, therefore, after vainly endeavouring to reclaim him, quitted him, and left his native country in search of wiser princes in other kingdoms; nor had he occasion to travel a great way, for all were ambitious to have him for their guest.

This ornament to human nature died at the age of seventy-three, and had a magnificent monument erected to his memory near the city of Kio-feu. The Chinese entertain a profound veneration for his memory, and have a chapel dedicated to him in almost every city, wherein the mandarins, and other literati, assemble on particular days, presenting oblations to him, after the manner of a sacrifice; honours, however, very contrary to the principles of Confucius, who never allowed of such homage and worship being paid to a creature.

The emperor, the princes of the blood, and all of learning and distinction in China follow the religion of Confucius.

The Chinese, in general, have clear apprehensions of a Supreme Being: they do not, in their avocations to Tien, or Chang-ti, address themselves to the material heavens, but to the King of heaven.

The Chinese literati frequent the temples, and attend the sacrifices in common with their countrymen; and they declare they address their adorations to one Supreme God.

Lao-kium, the founder of the second sect, was born about 600 years before Christ, in the province of Hou-quang,

quang. As soon as he attained to the exercise of reason, he applied himself with unwearied diligence to the study of the sciences, and made himself master of the history, laws, and customs of his country. He wrote a book entitled Tau-tse, containing 5000 sentences, replete with excellent morality. At length, after having spent a life of solitude and sanctity, he died at a place called U, where a tomb was erected to his memory. This philosopher constantly preached up solitude as an infallible means of elevating the human soul above earthly things, and of emancipating it from its material chains. Notwithstanding, however, this his strict and solitary life, he disgraced all by denying the immortality of the soul.

The founder of the third sect, Foë, was born in India, about 1000 years before Christ. He taught the doctrine of transmigration long before Pythagoras, and was the founder of the adoration to himself as a god. His followers, after his decease, pretended he had been born 8000 times, and that his soul had successively transmigrated through different animals.

They give out that Foë left behind him five grand commandments, viz. Never to deprive any creature whatever of its life; never to rob any man of his property; never to be guilty of unchastity; never to tell a lie; and never to drink wine.

The bonzes hold that there are places of rewards and punishments; and they preach up acts of benevolence to monasteries, as peculiarly profitable to the soul in the next life; maintaining that such pious deeds will absolve from sins; but that if they are omitted, the consequence will be the most dreadful tortures, and the soul will pass through the most disgraceful metamorphoses.

The idol Foë is worshipped under different forms, most of them extremely hideous. He is represented principally by three figures: one is a gigantic man, with a monstrous belly, sitting cross-legged, in the eastern taste; this they stile the idol of immortality: the second is about twenty feet high, and is called the idol of pleasure: and the third about thirty feet high, with a crown on his head, and is denominated the great king Kan. Exclusive of these, they have a great number of little idols, not in their pagodas only, but in their houses. All of them have their *ios* or household gods. These petit gods, however, are not treated with that respect which is shewn to their great gods; on the contrary, if these do not sometimes grant them their requests, they give them the bastinado. But the great gods in the temples have the most profound veneration paid them. People from distant places go in pilgrimage to some of the temples on the mountains, prostrating themselves repeatedly as they ascend.

The mandarins, and others of the literati, profess to abominate the idol Foë, yet, in case of a drought, or other calamity, they invoke this deity, merely to please and satisfy the people.

There are some religions of lesser note in China. When the Tartars became masters of China, they introduced their own religion into the empire, which, though for substance of doctrine, is the same with that of the worshippers of Foë, yet, in point of mode of worship, is different. The Tartars have no priests of the order of bonzes, but priests of their own, named Lamas; and, instead of worshipping the god Foë, they pay adoration to the Great Lama, or high priest, whom they denominate the Immortal Father, believing that he never dies; and the priests omit nothing that may give credit to the deceit; for when one Father happens to die, they immediately appoint another that resembles him as nearly as possible.

The Great Lama resides at Barantola, in Tibet, where he is never seen but by his favourites, except when he makes his appearance in the temple, to receive the offerings and adorations of the people. He then sits upon a kind of throne, arrayed in fine robes. The throne is lighted only by a few lamps, which give so feeble a light, that there is no possibility of discerning plainly the features of the arch impostor. The farce is

so admirably conducted, that no suspicions are formed of it. The people absolutely believe that the Great Lama is immortal.

As to the state of Judaism in China, the Jews, who many ages ago inhabited a part of this country, have at this period a synagogue at Kai-fong-fou, the capital of Ho-nan. They were visited in the year 1704 by P. Gozani, an Italian jesuit, who held several conferences with them. They permitted him to see the innermost part of their synagogue, or *sanctum sanctorum*, reserved only for the high-priest, who never enters but with the most profound reverence. They shewed him twelve little tabernacles or presses, in which were deposited their sacred books; and putting by one of the curtains, they took out a book written in beautiful characters, on long sheets of parchment, rolled round several wooden rollers. This was their pentateuch, which, they said, was most miraculously preserved in the time of a great inundation that happened in 1643, when the whole city of Kai-fong-fou was laid under water: but as the leaves and characters had sustained some injury from the wet, the chief officers of their synagogue had caused a dozen copies of it to be taken, and placed in the tabernacles.

Exclusive of the above manuscripts, they had numbers of small volumes in old chests, containing extracts from the pentateuch, and fragments of other sacred books. However, they said they had lost several of their canonical books at the time of the above-mentioned inundation: nor did P. Gozani in the least doubt the truth of this assertion; for they were acquainted with the names of Moses, Joshua, David, Solomon, Ezekiel, &c.

Gozani relates that, from an allowed tradition amongst them, their ancestors entered China under the dynasty of Han, which commenced 206 years before Christ, and continued on the Chinese throne 426 years: so that in this wide space of time we must place the uncertain epocha of the first settlement of the Jews in this country.

The Jews of China adhere stedfastly to most of the ancient ceremonies enjoined by the laws of Moses, as circumcision, a strict observance of their sabbath, and of other feasts, particularly that of unleavened bread. They eat the Paschal Lamb. They never dress any provision on a Saturday, but prepare it the preceding evening. When they read the pentateuch in the synagogue, they cover their faces with a transparent veil, in memory of Moses, who descended from the mountain with his face covered. They also abstain from blood, cutting the veins of the animals they kill, that it may flow out.

There were once many families of them, but they are now greatly reduced. They keep close together, and marry only among themselves. They call the books of the pentateuch by the following names: Bereshith, Veclesinath, Vayiera, Vajedabber, and Habdabarim. These five books they divide into fifty-three sections, viz. Genesis into twelve, Exodus into eleven, and the other three into ten each. Gozani, upon comparing their pentateuch with a bible he had carried with him, found an exact agreement between them with regard to chronology, as well as the age and genealogy of the patriarchs. In other respects, however, the text in their pentateuch was much corrupted.

Mahometans have inhabited here upwards of 600 years. They have considerable settlements in many of the provinces, particularly in Kiang-nan; and as they do not study to make proselytes, nor give any cause of jealousy to the state, the government never disturbs them.

Christianity is said to have been planted in China nearly as soon as the religion of Mahomet. It must be acknowledged, however, that it made not the same early progress. Some say that the Patriarch of the Indies sent Christian missionaries to China, in the period of the thirteenth dynasty, in the eighth year of the reign of Tai-tson, or about the middle of the seventh century of the Christian æra; and that, for four years after

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reign of Tai-tsou, or about the middle of the seventh century of the Christian æra, and that four years after this, Tai-tson suffered them to preach the gospel in his country. They further say, that in the year 1625 there was found in the province of Chenfi a stone tablet, ten feet long and five broad, containing the names of seventy missionaries who came from Judea to preach the gospel to the Chinese, together with a compendium of the Christian faith, all cut in Syriac characters. It is a known fact, however, that towards the end of the sixteenth century, when the European missionaries first set footing in China, they found no remains of Christianity among them. P. Michael Roger, a Neapolitan jesuit, first opened the mission in China, and led the way in which those of his order that followed him have acquired so much reputation, by the testimonies they have given of their zeal. P. Michael Roger was succeeded by P. Ricci, of the same society, who continued the work with such success, that he is considered by the jesuits as the principal founder of this mission. He was a man of very extraordinary talents. He had the art of rendering himself agreeable to every body, and by that means acquired the public esteem. He in some measure reconciled the ancient religion of the country to the first principles of theology, assuring the people that this moral system was the same with that of their celebrated philosopher Confucius. This secured him many followers. At length, in 1630, the Dominicans and Franciscans took the field, though but as gleaners of the harvest after the jesuits; and now it was that contentions broke out. Their first disputes, in which, perhaps, jealousy had too great a share, were on the subject of certain ceremonies concerning the worship of Confucius, and some honours paid to the dead: for as, in their funeral obsequies, they burnt incense, and practiced libations, sacrifices, and several other rites favouring of idolatry, these were condemned by one part of the missionaries, as incompatible with the purity of the Christian faith. Others of the missionaries, of a more moderate temper, and who had little hope of raising up this infant plantation to maturity without such indulgencies, were for tolerating these rites, looking on them as things of an indifferent nature, and mere political ceremonies. These disputes were a great hindrance to the progress of Christianity, which flourished before the arrival of the Dominican and Franciscan monks. Several years were spent in altercation; and the literati, who possessed all the employments under government, were so obstinately attached to Confucius, and the established rites of their country, that no reasonable concessions could ever prevail with them to abate any thing of their superstition; though even their monarch, Chang-hi, granted an edict in 1692, allowing Christianity to be preached throughout the empire. Strenuous appeals were made to Rome by both parties of the contending missionaries. At length, in 1704, the *holysæ* decreed, "That the words Tien and Chang-ti should not any longer be applied to the Deity: that the tablets, whereon were inscribed the word Kieng-tien, or, 'honour of heaven,' should be taken away from the Christian churches: that the Christians should not assist at offerings made in spring and autumn to Confucius and their forefathers: that they should omit to enter the temples erected to Confucius, and thenceforward pay no further adoration to their ancestors: and, lastly, that those tablets of their forefathers, bearing the inscription of 'the seat of the soul,' should be removed from every Christian's habitation. This rigid decree was, however, softened by a few privileges. The converts had the liberty of appearing in the halls of their ancestors, and to be spectators of the rites there performed, but never by any means to participate. They had the further indulgence of hanging up the tablets of their ancestors in their houses, with this proviso, that there should be no other inscription on the said tablets, than simply the name of the deceased. But notwithstanding these indulgencies, this decree of 1704, and a subsequent bull of Clement XI. in 1715, created

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the utmost confusion. The ministers of state, and the other mandarins, ever jealous of the growing reputation of the jesuits, were continually declaiming against them; and at length, by remonstrances, obtained a revocation of an edict that had been passed in favour of the Christian religion, by which means it fell under persecution in the reign of the very monarch who tolerated it, Cang-hi, and was afterwards entirely suppressed by his successor, Yong-tchin, when all the missionaries were banished to Canton, and upwards of 300 churches either pulled to the ground, or converted to profane uses. From the period of this fatal catastrophe, which happened in 1723, Christianity was so far from gaining ground in China, that the professors of it were persecuted with the utmost rigour, till the month of February 1785, when the present emperor, Kien-long, was pleased to put a stop to it, and issue a decree, wherein he expressed a desire that the missionaries might proceed peaceably, and without molestation.

SECTION XI.

Commerce, with its several Appurtenances.

FROM the commodious situation of China, and the variety of its produce and manufactures, a judgement may be formed of the nature of its commerce. However, the traffic which they carry on from home is inconsiderable, compared to their inland trade; Canton, Emony, and Ning-po, being their only maritime towns of any note for exports and imports. Besides, their navigation is very confined; for they never sail beyond the Straits of Sunda; and their common voyages are to Japan, Siam, Manilla, and Batavia.

They export to Japan ging-seng, china-root, rhubarb, silks, sugars, sweet-scented wood, leather, and European cloth; and import from thence pearls, red copper, both manufactured and in bars, sabre-blades, porcelain, varnish ware, tambac, and gold. The tambac is a species of copper, with some mixture of gold and silver.

The Chinese export to Manilla and Siam tea, drugs, silks, &c. and receive piastres. A piastre is about the value of a crown.

Their commodities of export for Batavia are chiefly green tea, porcelain, leaf-gold, medicinal drugs, and utensils made of yellow copper. Their returns are in piastres, spices, tortoise-shells, snuff-boxes, agates, amber, Brazil wood, and European cloth.

This is the chief foreign traffic of the Chinese. Sometimes they sail to Achen, Malacca, Potana, Cochin-China, &c.

We shall here introduce the latest remarks with respect to the commerce of the Chinese with the English.

The *compradore* comes along-side the ship every morning in a large sampan, fitted up in a very compact manner for his articles of trade. He returns on shore every evening; the *hoppo*, or custom-house officer, not permitting him to remain along-side at night. This is done to prevent smuggling, which is often practised when ging-seng or opium is in demand. It was observed upon one of these occasions, that this *compradore* frequently brought on board bad beef, and the sailors got no redress, until they clobbered him, a punishment they inflict on each other for slight offences. It is performed by placing the delinquent in a fixed position over a gun, having his arms and legs extended, so that he cannot move. They then get a flat piece of wood, which they apply pretty smartly to his posteriors, until he promises never to be guilty of the like again. They were obliged to repeat the punishment; and, it is probable, if he had again offended in the like manner, they would have cut off his lock. A greater injury cannot be done to a Chinaman, than cutting off his long lock of hair, or even threatening to do it. This punishment of infamy they inflict only on thieves.

Every ship has a *bankfall*, or temporary store-house. These bankfalls stand upon a small island, having no connections

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connections with any other place. They are built up with bamboos and mats so slightly, that they are easily broke through, and this frequently happens; though a watch is, or should be, kept in each.

A grand mandarin comes on board to measure the length of every ship, but takes no account of the breadth. It is supposed that the security-merchant pays a duty accordingly to the hoppo, or receiver-general of the customs. These security-merchants are people who are very rich, and the mandarins make them accountable for all duties, and for all depredations committed by the ship's company while at Whampoa. They are nominated against their will by the hoppo, who is viceroy at Canton. Sometimes the security-merchant buys all the private trade belonging to the ship. Two are appointed to this office. If a mandarin sees any thing that strikes his fancy, he will order the security-merchant to purchase it, which he must have at any expence. Very often the security-merchants are under the necessity of making a present of it to the mandarin.

The captain and all the officers attend when the ship is measured, to receive the mandarin, &c. He is generally regaled with sweet-meats, and Madeira wine mixed with sugar. Sometimes the hoppo comes himself, but this is seldom.

Our articles of commerce are scarlet cloth, lead, crystals and glasses of all kinds, watches, clocks, &c. for which we receive in return, teas, raw silk, varnish, china wares, &c. but since the Europeans have learned to imitate the two last manufactures, they have of course sunk in their value. There is no trading to China with advantage except in silver, for the purchase of their ingots of gold. The principal, or, indeed, the only staple for European commodities, is the city of Canton. No other port in China is suffered to be open to us.

Copper and silver are their only current metals. Gold passes in trade as a commodity. The only metal that is stamped with any character is copper. They do not impress it with the head or image of the emperor; for it would be a dishonour to a great personage, for any representation of him to pass through common hands: but they give it different inscriptions, pompously setting forth the titles or name of the imperial family.

SECTION XII.

CONCISE HISTORY OF CHINA.

THE learned in general admit of the antiquity of the Chinese nation, though none have been able to ascertain the first period of their chronology. From the best of their own accounts that can be obtained, it seems that its real commencement bears date in the reign of Lye-vang, which answers to the year 434 before Christ; previous to which, the writers of the grand chronicle of China ingenuously acknowledge that their chronologies are not to be depended upon; nor do their memoirs go any farther back.

With respect to the European writers, M. Fouquet allows the Chinese nation to be near as old as the deluge. M. Tournefort, and others, give it as their opinion, that the Chinese have been a nation near 4000 years.

"Under the reign of the emperor Yu (says P. Du Halde) which they place above 2000 years before Christ, they discovered a large track of territory to the south, partly destitute of inhabitants. This large extent of country was peopled by Yu and his successors at different periods, under the controul of princes of the blood, to whom they portioned out this new country, reserving to themselves only some acknowledgement. Thus were formed several little tributary kingdoms, which being afterwards united to the empire, rendered it very considerable. During the reign of Yu, the monarchy was divided into nine provinces, a particular delineation of which this emperor caused to be engraved on nine brazen vessels. In the year 2037, before Christ,

several nations sent ambassadors to China, and submitted voluntarily to a yearly tribute. Towards the end of the second dynasty [or race of emperors] about 1200 years before Christ, certain Chinese colonies extended themselves to the eastern coast, and also took possession of several islands. Under the fifth dynasty, which commenced about 200 years before Christ, the Chinese not only enlarged their borders to the north, after many signal victories obtained over the Tartars, but pushed their conquests even to the confines of India, viz. to Pegu, Siam, Camboya, and Bengal. About 600 years after Christ, Kao-tsou-venti, founder of the twelfth dynasty, added to the empire several of the northern provinces, situated beyond the river Yang-tse-kiang, and which at that time composed a particular kingdom subject to the Tartars. This went by the name of the northern empire for several ages. Lastly, the revolution which happened in 1644, when China was conquered by the Tartars, only served to increase the power and extent of this great empire, by joining to its former possessions, a considerable part of Great Tartary. Thus this vast monarchy attained to the summit of its greatness by a gradual progress, not so much in the way of conquest like other empires, as by the wisdom of its laws, and the reputation of its government."

The Chinese empire has been successively governed by twenty-two imperial families. The order of the dynasties commenced with the family of Hia, the first of whom was distinguished by the title of Yu.

Near 2000 years in the annals of China are filled up by the three first dynasties, or families on the imperial throne; whilst the reigns of the succeeding monarchs scarce measure an equal space of time. The history of the monarchy of those three first dynasties (and indeed the fourth) presents nothing to the view that can tend to their own honour, or the interest of the empire; exhibiting scenes of cruelty, debauchery, tyranny, and rapine.

The fifth dynasty, which lasted 426 years, produced many monarchs of respectable characters: but the conduct of the last of this race excited intestine commotions, and caused a division of the empire into four parts, under four distinct sovereigns; but they were re-united under the founder of the sixth dynasty, who reigned with honor to himself three years, and left a son that terminated it with disgrace. The monarchs of the seventh race, or dynasty, are represented as totally disqualified by birth and abilities for their elevated station.

The Chinese annals of the five succeeding dynasties present a succession of weak princes, whose reigns were in general attended with revolutions, rapine, and destruction.

The blessings of peace were restored and enjoyed under the first emperor of the thirteenth dynasty, and maintained under that of his son and successors; till the tranquillity of the nation was disturbed under the sixth, after which commotions prevailed to the close. It seems that the cause of these disturbances arose from unlimited exercise of regal jurisdiction committed by the monarchs to their eunuchs.

In the fourteenth and four following dynasties, no less than thirteen monarchs swayed the imperial scepter, most of whom suffered violent deaths.

The Tartars who inhabited Leao-tong, one of the most northern provinces of China, during these last dynasties, began to render themselves powerful. This province was ceded to them by the last emperors of the thirteenth race: and Kao-tsou, head of the sixteenth, who was indebted to them for his advancement to the throne, gave up to them sixteen more towns in the province of Pe-tche-li, exclusive of a tribute of 300,000 pieces of silk. These shameful compliances increased their power and pride, and were productive of wars for 400 years, which nearly desolated the empire.

The Chinese, under the nineteenth dynasty, called to their assistance the Niu-tche, or Eastern Tartars, in conjunction with whom they drove the Northern Tartars from a country which they had possessed upwards of

two centuries. The Chinese, however, were obliged to pay dearly for the aid of their allies, who not only constrained them to cede Leao-tong, by way of compensation, but also took possession of Pe-tche-li, Chen-si, and Ho-nan: and they some years afterwards invaded the very heart of the empire, took Nan-king, the capital, burnt the royal palace to the ground, and forced the Chinese to accept of the most dishonourable terms of pacification.

The twentieth dynasty took the name of Yven, and had for its founder Chi-tsou, fourth son of Tai-tsou, in whom commenced the third (or Western) Tartar usurpation. The Yven family gave nine emperors to China; the former of whom, by their prudent administration, won the hearts of their subjects: but the succeeding monarchs, indulging in a life of indolence, luxury, and dissipation, perceived themselves excelled in the use of arms and natural courage, by the very people whom they had conquered, who, possessing the most lively sentiments of freedom, and despising their dissipated victors, wrested conquest from their hands, and drove them back to their native country. This dynasty, which lasted only eighty-nine years, became extinct in the person of Chun-ti, a very worthless monarch, who was addicted to a variety of vices.

The twenty-first dynasty, of which Tai-tsou was founder, subsisted 276 years. The commotions that happened under this family produced gradually that great revolution which a second time placed a Tartarian family on the throne of China. The following is a brief narrative of this memorable event.

The Tartars being expelled the empire, and having retreated into their ancient country, bordering upon Leao-tong, it happened that their merchants trading in that place received some indignity from the merchants of China, and exhibited a complaint to the mandarins, who, instead of attending to the same, augmented the grievance, by craftily drawing their prince into an ambuscade, and severing his head from his shoulders.

The Tartars, incensed at this act of cruelty and perfidy, marched a numerous army into the very heart of Leao-tong, commanded by Tien-ming, son of their numbered prince, who subdued Leao-tong and Pe-tche-li, but was soon obliged to abandon those provinces, which were, however, with the rest of the Chinese empire, reserved for his grandson, Tsong-te, but who was cut off by sudden death, in the moment of his great view of sovereignty. He had been brought up and educated in China, was master of the Chinese tongue, and perfectly acquainted with the disposition and genius of the people.

The empire was at this period very critically situated: the war with the Niu-tche Tartars continued, and, as an addition to this national calamity, there was a great famine in the land. The then reigning monarch, too, Hoai-tsong, was a man of mean abilities, suffering himself to be directed in every thing by his ministers and eunuchs, who greatly oppressed the people. A revolt was the consequence; and, in a short space of time, there were eight different factions under the same number of chiefs. These were, however, afterwards reduced to two, and at length to one, headed by a commander named Li, who, invading and possessing himself of the provinces of Ho-nan and Chen-si, stiled himself emperor of China.

This usurper committed the most dreadful ravages. In his attack of Cuif-ong, the capital of Ho-nan, that town was laid under water by a sudden breaking down of the dykes of the Yellow River, and 300,000 persons perished in the inundation. He afterwards marched to Pe-king at the head of 300,000 troops, and entered the city without the least opposition; for he had privately conveyed into the city a number of his people in disguise, who threw open the gates to him: and such was the supineness of Hoai-tsong, the emperor, that he knew nothing of this circumstance, till the usurper had laid the whole city under his subjection. However, as soon as he heard the news, he marched from his palace

at the head of 600 of his guards, who treacherously abandoned him. Thus situated, he flew into the gardens of his palace with his daughter, whose head he cut off, and then hung himself upon a tree. His wives, his prime minister, and some of his eunuchs, also destroyed themselves.

The news of this melancholy event soon reached the army, then making war in Tartary, under the command of a general named Ou-sang-guey, who refused to acknowledge Li as his sovereign; whereupon the latter put himself at the head of his numerous army, for the purpose of giving him battle. Ou-sang-guey shut himself up in a strong fortified town. Thither Li marched his troops, and having taken captive the father of Ou-sang-guey, ordered him to be loaded with irons, and placed at the foot of the town wall, sending word to his son at the same time, that if he did not immediately surrender, his father's throat should be cut from ear to ear. The father found means to send a message to his son, begging him to surrender. The son sacrificed his filial esteem to the interests of his country, and the old man was most cruelly put to death.

Ou-sang-guey, naturally inflamed with rage, concluded a peace with the Niu-tche Tartars, and engaged them to enter into an alliance with him against Li, whose superior force it was totally impossible for him to resist.

Tsong-te, the king of the Tartars, very readily came to his assistance at the head of 80,000 warriors, forced the usurper to raise the siege, pursued him even to Pe-king, and so totally routed his army, that he was forced to fly into the province of Chen-si, where he spent the remainder of his days in obscurity. Tsong-te being thus successful, the people idolized him as their deliverer; and he bestowed several distinguished honours upon the faithful Ou-sang-guey. The latter, however, soon had cause to repent his having leagued himself with so great and powerful a prince; for Tsong-te was no sooner arrived at Pe-king, than he began to think of improving the success of his arms, and the favourable disposition of the people, (with whom, as hath been observed, he had been brought up and educated,) into the means of his advancement to the throne of China; but being seized with an illness that speedily brought on his dissolution, all that he could do was to declare his son emperor, who was only about six years of age. This election was confirmed by the grandees and people, who, in consideration of the signal services done by the father, connived at the tender age of the child, who took the name of Chun-ci, and is considered as the founder of the twenty-second dynasty. Kien-long, one of his descendants, now fills the imperial throne of China.

This revolution happened in the year 1644, uniting a considerable part of Great Tartary to the Chinese empire: and since the union, the Tartars seem rather to have submitted to the laws of the Chinese, than to have imposed any upon them. In fact, the latter may be said to be as great gainers by it as the Tartars themselves. China still holds the seat of empire, and has the supreme courts of justice. Thither flows all the opulence of the united kingdoms, and all honours are conferred there. Both nations, so opposite in genius and character, have each been considerably benefited by the incorporation. The fierce spirit of the Tartar has given a spark of martial fire to the peaceful temper of the Chinese, while the arts and commerce of the latter have humanized and softened the savage roughness of the former. China having acquired great additional strength by her union with Tartary has now no enemy to dread. Never were the opulence, power, grandeur, and glory of the Chinese empire greater than at present. At home it hath all the blessings of peace, and abroad it is respected. It hath enjoyed a perfect tranquillity for upwards of seventy years, and is unrivalled by all other nations for its public works of art, having 32 royal palaces, 272 grand libraries, 709 halls, 1159 triumphal arches, 331 beautiful bridges, and 681 various tombs.

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The next memorable event in the annals of China happened in the year 1771, when a nation of the Tartars left their settlements under the Russian government on the banks of the Wolga and the Jack, near the Caspian Sea, and, in a vast body of many thousand families, passed through the country of the Hacks, and, after a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontiers of Carapan, and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-long, the present emperor of China, who was then in the 36th year of his reign. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, cloaths, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land, for agriculture and pasturage. There happened the year following a second emigration of several thousand other Tartar families, who also quitted their settlements under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these emigrations to be engraven upon stone, in four different languages.

As a tribute due to the very singular liberality of the emperor Kien-long, as well as a most interesting and recent circumstance of the Chinese history, we present our readers with the following account of the feast given by him to the ancients, on the 14th of February, 1785, translated from the Memoirs of the French Missionaries.

“ This imperial feast, which Kien-long gave to the ancients, is one of those events which will make an epoch in the empire. Kang-hi, his uncle, set the example, who, mounting the throne very young, celebrated the sixtieth year of his reign in 1722. Kien-long celebrated the fiftieth year of his reign, and sixty-fifth of his age, on this day. At the end of 1784, he solemnly announced his intentions, and made a number of promotions among the mandarins, professors of the arts, belles lettres, and military. He likewise exempted all the people from taxes that year, and repealed for ever those which bore hard on them. He ordered distributions of rice, and pieces of silk or stuff, to be given to every poor person throughout the empire, who had attained the age of sixty years. Those who were one hundred had fifty bushels of rice and two pieces of silk; one of the first, the other of the second quality. Those who had attained ninety years, received thirty bushels of rice and two pieces of silk, of an inferior quality. Those who were less than sixty, and exceeding fifty, had five bushels of rice and one piece of silk. Every other person had rice and silk in proportion to their ages, reckoning by ten years.

“ This grand and solemn feast was held at the city of

Pe-king, on the 14th of February, in the year 1785, and gave great satisfaction to those for whom it was made.

“ Three thousand aged men of quality (which number M. Amiot, who relates this history, saw at the palace, and who were invited by the emperor) being assembled, the emperor, who chose to do the honours of the table, took his place at the head. The only distinction made was the elevation of his throne about a foot higher than the other seats, solely, as he declared, for the purpose of seeing that every thing was right, as the tables were served in all parts equal, where the guests were distributed four and four. At others were the princes of the blood, the nobility, and the mandarins. At a circular table sat the emperor's family, to see that nothing was wanting by those ancient guests, and to exhort them to partake of the repast with satisfaction, which their good master had invited them to. A numerous band of music played during the time, which was followed by a ballet, represented by the comedians of the court; and, at the end, the vocal performers chanted a hymn in honour of Tien, to return thanks for this particular day. The emperor then retired, and his ministers distributed to each of the company a present, with a wish written thereon by the emperor, ‘ That each might enjoy long life, and what they wished:’ also a piece in verse, which he had composed for the occasion, and which was nearly as follows. The title of the piece is, ‘ To the venerable Ancients invited to the Solemn Feast, to rejoice with me, in memory of what was done before by my august Uncle.’

‘ The blessings which I have received from heaven, are without number: it is impossible for me to reckon them: but I cannot avoid expressing the peculiar happiness I feel in having renewed this day, which has caused the most pleasing emotion in my heart, and which I shall ever call in pleasure to my memory, as having seen my princes and my people take their place by the side of their master, serving, and to be served, equally upon the same footing, without any distinction of rank, being equally happy as an assembly of friends, with the same motives of joy and gladness. This is the second time, by the special favour of God, that I have enjoyed the same sight, with the same feeling of heart. Our descendants will, no doubt, be penetrated with sentiments of the most tender veneration, when they read in history, that two emperors of my august race, have celebrated, the one his sixtieth, and the other his fiftieth, year of their reign; rejoicing, as in a family repast, with the whole empire, represented by the Chosen of its aged people.’

C H A P. XI.

T O N Q U I N.

S E C T I O N I.

Boundaries, Extent, and Situation. Climate, Soil, and Produce. Division of the Country, with the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants.

THE kingdom of Tonquin is bounded on the east and north by the empire of China; on the west by the two small kingdoms of Laos and Bowes, bordering on Siam; and on the south and south-east, by Cochinchina. It is about 500 miles in length, and 400 miles in the broadest part; and is divided into eight provinces, viz. east, west, north, and south provinces, Tenay, Terhoa, Ngeam, and the province of Cachao. It lies on the side of a gulph, thirty leagues across in the widest part, at the extremity of which are several small islands.

This country being situated under the tropic, the weather is extremely variable. However, their two chief distinctions with respect to this are those of the dry and rainy seasons; the former of which is the most agreeable, and continues from September to March; during which time the north wind blows without intermission, and the air is healthful, except in January and February, when the weather is frequently very severe. The rainy season begins in April, and ends in August, the south wind blowing all the time. The three first months of this season are very unhealthy. During the months of June, July, and August, the heat is very intense: nevertheless, the country, at this time, has a most pleasing and beautiful appearance: the trees are loaded with fruit, and the plains covered with a rich harvest. However, as the land mostly lies low, particularly near the sea, it is subject to frequent inundations, by which the natives are sometimes great sufferers.

In this kingdom there are great numbers of canals; and as rice is the chief food of the natives, so the husbandry of it is the peasant's whole employ, and it generally rewards his toil with two crops yearly.

Their oranges are said to excel all others in the east for richness of flavour: and here are guavas, ananas, arekas, papays, &c. as well as various kinds of flowers, among which are very beautiful lilies and jessamins, though the Tonquinese discover not much taste for this elegant entertainment of nature. Indeed, the ladies here have great esteem for one particular flower, which retains a very fragrant scent even for fifteen days after it is gathered. With this flower they decorate their persons, when in their best and gayest apparel.

Though Tonquin affords no mines of gold or silver, there are iron and lead mines in abundance. Silk-worms are also here in such plenty, that silk is almost as cheap as cotton. Sugar-canes likewise thrive well in this country: and they have a sort of tea which they call Chia-bang, the leaves of which they boil; as also another kind called Chia-way, the leaf of which is not fit for any use; but the flower, when dried before the fire, makes a very agreeable liquor by infusion, as the other does by decoction.

Cacho is the metropolis, the residence of the chova, or king. But this city has no remarkable buildings, except the royal palace, which stands in the center of it. This is a spacious edifice, encompassed by a wall, within the precinct of which are several buildings, two stories high, with gates and fronts in a superb taste. The chova's apartments, and those of his concubines, are grandly decorated with gilding and varnish work; and behind the palace are large handsome gardens.

The houses of private people in this city are of wood and earth, and chiefly of one story. Those of foreign merchants only are built of brick.

The natives of Tonquin are of a middle size, and pretty well proportioned. They are of a tawny complexion, bordering upon yellow. Their hair is black, thick, and long, falling in waves upon their shoulders. Their teeth are as white as snow, till they colour them black, using for this purpose a corrosive composition. They much resemble the Chinese, and, like them, have great natural politeness, without being altogether such slaves to ceremony. They are superstitious, inconstant, and intemperate. Their provisions are dressed and served up in an elegant taste; and they perfume both their tables and their dishes. Their usual fare consists of rice dressed various ways, eggs, pulse; roots, fowl, fish, buffalo, pork, beef, kid, and frogs. They have neither table-cloths or napkins; and, instead of forks, use ivory sticks as the Chinese do, and eat much in the same manner. The food of the common people is rice, dried fish, and pulse; and tea is their usual drink: but the higher classes mix arrack with their tea, and often become intoxicated with it. The grandees have halls in their houses, for the entertainment of singing and dancing in the evenings: and, indeed, every villa hath its houses of mirth and jollity, where the people assemble, especially on their festivals, and cause plays to be acted. The actors are generally about half a dozen in number; and the dances are performed by the women, who sing at the same time. A merry-andrew too appears, exciting the laughter of the spectators by his drollery and humour. They have several kinds of musical instruments, such as kettle-drums, trumpets, fiddles, guitars, and hautboys.

A great number of festivals are observed in this kingdom: two of them are kept with more than ordinary solemnity. The first is held at the beginning of the year, which, at Tonquin, commences with the new moon nearest to the end of January, and sometimes three or four days sooner. This feast lasts about twelve days: but the first day is rather a day of lamentation than of rejoicing; for they then shut up their habitation, and keep within doors, for fear, as they pretend, of meeting with some unlucky object in the street, which might prove to them an omen of ill fortune in the course

of the ensuing year. On the day following they begin their festivity, when booths and stages are erected in the streets, in which are represented different kinds of shews. Nothing is heard but the sound of musical instruments, and the wild uproar of riot and licentiousness. The second grand festival is kept with the same kind of mad merriment, in the sixth moon: and, exclusive of these, they observe two monthly feasts, in which religion has some share; it being customary at these feasts to sacrifice to their ancestors, by oblations of provisions at their tombs. Another solemn feast is what they call can-ja, on which their king gives his public benediction to the country, and ploughs two or three furrows with his own hands; which custom the princes of Tonquin have undoubtedly borrowed from the Chinese emperors. The natives practise fasting and prayers by way of preparation for this festival.

SECTION II.

Marriages, Sciences, Language, Manufactures, Commerce, Religion, and Funeral Ceremonies.

THE law of Tonquin, as well as of China, forbids young people to marry without the consent of their parents; and females are seldom disposed of in marriage before the age of sixteen. When a young man seeks a maiden, he first applies to the father, and makes him a present. After the articles are agreed upon, the man sends to the house of the young woman such presents as have been stipulated; and on the wedding day, the fathers of both families, accompanied by their friends, conduct the bride to the bridegroom's house, where the ceremony is performed in great form. There is no wedding without a feast, which holds three or more days.

Though the men have the privilege of marrying several wives, only one takes the title of wife. The men are suffered to divorce their wives whenever they please; but the women cannot divorce themselves without the consent of their husbands. However, when they are thus put away by their husbands, they have the privilege of taking with them not only the effects which they brought, but likewise the presents made to them previous to marriage; and if there be any children, these are left with the father to maintain. On this account very few divorces happen.

A woman convicted of adultery is condemned to be trampled to death by an elephant. The adulterer is also sentenced to die, but not to suffer so severe a death.

These people are indebted to the Chinese for the greatest part of their arts and sciences. They are little skilled in the mathematics or astronomy; nor have they any public schools, the children being privately educated at home by their parents. The art of medicine here is principally confined to the knowledge of simples; and the physicians pretend to be as skilful as those of China with regard to the pulse. They judge of the cause, seat, and quality of the distemper, by the number of pulses in one respiration. Their surgery is confined to the use of caustics and cupping, which they practise in most disorders, using gourds and calabashes in the latter instead of glasses. The fever, dysentery, and small-pox, are the most common maladies the people of this country are subject to, which they in general treat pretty successfully, by means of certain drinks, and prudent regimen. They prescribe tea, as hot as it can possibly be drank, for the head-ach.

The Tonquinese language abounds with monosyllables: one word, in some instances, signifies eleven or twelve different things; the precise sense of which, in conversation, is only distinguished by the different inflection and modification of the voice.

Here are good manufactures of silk, potters ware, and paper. Their varnished commodities are in good estimation. They work well in wood and iron, understand the art of foundry, and know how to cast cannon; but notwithstanding this their ingenuity, they make but

little advantage of it through want of genius for traffic. Their chief trade is with the Dutch and Chinese, who buy up their silk, both raw and in thread: and they also sell large quantities of their wrought silk to the English. The articles chiefly imported into Tonquin are saltpetre, sulphur, English broad-cloth, &c. The traders are said to be fairer dealers than the Chinese.

These people have no coinage of their own, but make use of foreign coin, and particularly copper money, which they have from China.

The Tonquinese profess two systems of religion, both received from their neighbours the Chinese. The one is that of Confucius, the substance of which, as held by them, consists in an inward devotion, or observance of some secret rites in honour of the dead, and in the practice of moral virtues. The professors of this system have neither priests, temples, or any fixed mode of public worship, every one paying his adorations to the Deity in what form he thinks proper. They pay a kind of adoration to some spirits, as the viceregents of the supreme governor of all things. Some believe that the souls of persons are immortal, and that there is a future state of rewards and punishments. Others, however, assign immortality only to the souls of the righteous. The religion of most of the common people is that of Foe, who worship many idols; and, indeed, these have their temples and their priests, who lead a very austere life, and subsist chiefly on alms. They reside in mean huts near the temples, to offer up the petitions of the people, as occasionally brought to them, which they read aloud to their idols, and then burn them in an incense pot, the petitioners being all the time prostrate on the ground. The religion of Foe is divided into many sects. The most considerable is that of Lanzo, whose followers profess magic: they pretend to the prediction of future events, and are divided into different classes.

The Tonquinese dress their dead in their richest apparel, and put small pieces of gold or silver, together with pearls, into the mouths of the rich; and into those of the poor are put little copper pieces, and other baubles. They do this from a supposition that they hereby secure the dead from poverty in the other world, and themselves from being haunted by them. There is great emulation among the opulent in providing fine coffins for themselves. In framing these coffins they make no use of nails, as this would have the appearance of laying a constraint on the deceased, but only cement the boards together. The corpse is conveyed to the place of burial with great funeral pomp, the sons of the deceased attending, clothed in robes of grey cloth, and supporting themselves with a staff, as if ready to drop to the ground with immoderate grief. The wives and daughters follow, robed in grey, and crying most bitterly and loudly. The eldest son, during the procession, prostrates himself several times before the coffin, and sometimes thumps upon the lid of it, as if to awake his father from the sleep of death. The rest of the funeral solemnities of these people differ very little from those of the Chinese, and their mourning habiliments are exactly the same.

SECTION III.

Origin, Sovereign, Government, Laws, Military and Naval Armament of the People of Tonquin.

As these people were some ages unacquainted with the art of writing, matters relating to the foundation of their government are buried in obscurity. One of the first kings mentioned in their history was Ding, said to have reigned 200 years before Christ, and to have been raised to the throne by a troop of banditti. He, however, reigned with such oppression, that his subjects revolted, and murdered him. This revolution and murder were followed by long wars, which at length terminated in the election of a king, named Le-day-han, in whose reign the Chinese invaded

and over-run the kingdom. This prince, however, defended himself with the greatest bravery, and defeated them several times, but could not drive them out of the country. Upon the death of Le-day-han, Li-bal-vie was placed on the throne, who vanquished, and totally drove the Chinese from his territories. The posterity of this prince enjoyed a tranquil reign for several generations; and the last king of this family leaving behind him but one daughter, this princess shared the throne with a nobleman whom she espoused; but another grandee, named Ho, conspired against the queen, subdued her husband in battle, put both of them to death, and took possession of the crown; which treachery and cruelty occasioned a revolt of the people, who applied to the Chinese for aid, and occasioned their entrance into the kingdom with a numerous army, which drove away the tyrant, and, as a reward for their services, took possession of the government themselves, forcing the Tonquinese to accept of a viceroy from China, who changed the form of the constitution, and introduced the Chinese laws and customs.

However, the Tonquinese, in process of time, headed by a man of a most intrepid spirit, named Li, took up arms against the Chinese, put them all to the sword, and compelled the emperor to assent to a dishonourable peace. Li was crowned king of Tonquin; and all that the Chinese were able to obtain was, that the kings of Tonquin should hold the crown in fealty under the emperor of China, and pay them a triennial tribute. This treaty was concluded about the year 1200 of the Christian æra, and both nations have faithfully observed the articles of it ever since. The Tonquinese send ambassadors to Pe-king every three years with their tribute, who do homage to the emperor: and the latter also sends his ambassadors to Tonquin, who behave with the utmost haughtiness; inasmuch, that when the king has occasion to treat with them on any important matters, he is obliged to wait upon them, instead of their attending upon him. Nor can a prince of Tonquin ascend the throne of his ancestors, without a confirmation from the hand of the emperor of China.

The descendants of Li sat upon the throne for two centuries, after which ensued many revolutions. About the year 1400 of the Christian æra, a simple fisherman, named Mack, usurped the crown, but was deposed by Tring, another usurper, who covered his usurpation with the pretence of restoring the family of Li to the throne, and accordingly caused a young prince of that house to be crowned; but whilst he bestowed on the prince the title, he reserved to himself the regal power, under the name of chova, or general of the realm.

Tring had a brother-in-law, whose name was Hoaving, son of a governor of the province of Tingwa, to whom Tring lay under some particular obligations; for this governor had not only been greatly his friend, in assisting him in an enterprize with the troops of his province, but likewise disposed of his daughter to him in wedlock; and moreover, on his death-bed, committed to him the guardianship of his only son, who was this Hoaving above-mentioned. Hoaving reflected with great concern on the conduct of his brother-in-law and guardian, in having employed his father's forces to set any other than himself (Hoaving) on the throne of Tonquin, and conceived on the occasion such a spirit of resentment, that he not only refused to do homage to the new king, but openly took up arms, possessed himself of Cochin-China, an ancient province of Tonquin, and, after the example of his brother-in-law, caused himself to be proclaimed chova at the head of his army. These two generals governed with absolute authority, the one in Tonquin, and the other in Cochin-China, and waged war with each other as long as they lived, with success nearly equal on both sides. They transmitted the title of chova to their successors, and their descendants enjoy it at this present period of time in both kingdoms. But we shall here confine ourselves to the chova of Tonquin, where, indeed, are, at present, two supreme magistrates or sovereigns, the one titular, the

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other real: the former has the name of bova; but in the chova are vested all the powers of government. The authority of the bova consists principally in giving the form of ratification to the decrees of the chova. The dignity of the latter is hereditary, and his eldest son succeeds him; but the succession of bovas is uncertain; for when a bova leaves several sons, the chova chooses which of them he pleases, and may even raise a collateral branch to the dignity.

Every province in the kingdom of Tonquin has its particular governor, and each governor has a mandarin for his lieutenant, who has the care of administering justice, and of seeing that the laws are properly observed; which, indeed, are the Chinese laws, as introduced amongst them in the twelfth century. Nevertheless, some of the courts of judicature in Tonquin are so corrupt, that there are few offences for which money will not secure the culprit from punishment.

The army of the king of Tonquin consists of 150,000

men exclusive of 10,000 horse. The soldiers are picked men out of the different villages; and it is the chief pride of the officers to have the firelocks of the men neat and bright. They are so nice in this respect, that if the arms become rusty, they stop a week's pay of the soldier's wages for the first offence, and for the second inflict corporal punishment. When the army marches, the generals, and other principal officers, ride upon elephants.

The Tonquinese are by no means good soldiers, and this may in a great measure be ascribed to the effeminacy of their officers, to the want of military encouragement, to the influence of money, and to the favour of the great.

The naval force of Tonquin consists of a considerable number of gallies, barks, and boats; but these are better calculated for coasting on the sea-shore, than for long voyages. They have no sails, but make use of oars only.

C H A P. XII.

C O C H I N - C H I N A .

SECTION I.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

COCHIN-CHINA, or West China, as the name imports, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some, from the 8th to the 17th, and, according to others, from the 12th to the 18th degree of north latitude. It is about 500 miles in length, and is bounded on the east by the Chinese Sea, on the west by Laos and Cambodia, on the south by Champa, or Chiampa, and on the north by Tonquin. It is, like Tonquin, tributary to China.

Here is great plenty of rice and sugar; also gold and silver mines. They have likewise eagle-wood, calambac, an ordinary sort of tea, and several kinds of drugs. The kingdom is divided into five or six provinces, and is well peopled. The king resides at the capital of Ke-hue. Along the coast are several islands subject to this kingdom, which produce many useful fruit and other trees.

There is a regular annual inundation, about the middle of autumn, which overspreads the country for two months, and leaves behind it a kind of slime, which helps to fertilize the land. In this wet season the people sail about the country in barks; nor would they be secure in their habitations, were they not to erect them on piles, so as to leave a free passage for the water below. The houses are built of canes entwined together, so that the walls resemble the sides of a wicker basket, and these they plaister over with a mortar made of dirt or lime. They cover their habitations with straw, or the leaves of cocoa, and they consist in common of one story. The window-frames are closed up with Japan paper, or Naker shells ground to transparency. The partitions of their chambers are formed of screens, and their floors are covered with mats, which serve them both for seats and beds. In the houses of the opulent, indeed, the rooms are furnished with handsome chairs.

These people are temperate, and the chief of their food is rice and fish, which they have in great plenty. They have no kitchens in their houses, for fear of accidents by fire, but dress their provisions by the sides of rivers, with which the country abounds, and on whose banks their towns are built. When the wind blows from the sea, it is customary for a soldier to go about beating a drum, as a signal for people to extinguish their fires.

The natives, though but imperfectly civilized, possess that felicity which might excite the envy of more improved societies. They have neither robbers or beggars, and hospitality is seen in every habitation. A traveller freely enters a house in any village, sits down to eat and drink without any invitation, and departs without acknowledging the civility. He is a man and fellow creature, and therefore welcome. If he were a foreigner, he would excite more curiosity, but would be equally welcome.

The wealthier sort occasionally entertain their friends in a sumptuous manner. At these times their tables vie with the European, either in variety or cookery.

The common people, at public festivals, assemble in the streets, where they spread their mats, and, sitting in a circle, eat their provisions, while tumblers and merry-andrews exercise their mummery.

SECTION II.

Of the Chova, or King. Government and Laws of the Cochinchinese. Their Mechanics, Trade, and Money.

AS in most of the eastern countries, the king of Cochinchina is a despotic monarch, and so difficult of access, that the most considerable or opulent of his people must not presume to present a petition to him, without previously making court to his chief minister of state. He gives audience at his palace gate in a sort of state litter, superbly gilt, and somewhat resembling a cage. No persons must approach nearer to him than at the distance of four score paces. His palace is at Ke-hue, the metropolis, where, after the eastern custom, he keeps his seraglio, guarded by eunuchs. When he goes abroad, he rides on an elephant, on which he always sits side-ways, and is accompanied by guards. On his head he wears a turban of the finest calico. Pendants of the richest brilliants hang from his ears. He has bracelets on his arms; but his body is almost bare, having only a covering round his middle; and he holds a spear, or rather a long javelin, in his hand.

The respective provinces of Cochinchina are governed by mandarins, and different courts of justice; and if a mandarin should be convicted of mal-administration, he is, at a certainty, punished with death. Not only all the officers of state, but even the lives and fortunes of the people, are entirely at the disposal of the king.

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The laws of this country are exceedingly rigid in cases of treason and rebellion, which capital crimes are not only punished with the most dreadful tortures, but very severe penalties are likewise inflicted on all the kindred of the traitors. Other offences, that are in any degree heinous, are punished with death, or the loss of a limb; though it must be acknowledged, that the all-powerful influence of money too frequently shelters the guilty from the punishment due to their crimes.

Though totally unacquainted with the sciences, these people are very skilful mechanics; and, in the manufacture of silk, they surpass the Tonquinese. They make sugar-mills and water-engines; but know not how

to make any sort of fire-arms. Their foreign trade is by no means considerable. Silk, cotton, betel, aloes, wax, Japan wood, cassia, and sugar, are the chief articles they export; the greater part of which are purchased by the Chinese, who, indeed, have nearly engrossed the whole of this trade to themselves. The only money current in this country consists of pieces of copper struck in China. Silver is exceeding scarce with them, inasmuch that a man is deemed wealthy who is possessed of 80 or 100 piastres.

Their religion, marriages, funeral ceremonies, &c. are the same as at Tonquin.

C H A P. XIII.

THE KINGDOM OF CAMBODIA, OR CAMBOYA, AND THE ISLAND OF PULO-CONDOR.

SECTION I.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Soil, Productions, Persons, Dress, Religion, Manufactures, &c. of the Natives.

CAMBODIA is situated on the east side of the gulph of Siam. It is bounded on the west by Cochinchina; by the Indian Ocean on the south; and by the kingdom of Laos and the Kemois mountains on the north. It extends from north to south upwards of 300 miles, and is about 210 miles in breadth. The river Mecon, which is very spacious, runs through it, and falls by two channels into the sea. At the place where it first rises it is called Longmu, after which it takes the name of Mecon, and continuing that name for a considerable space, at length changes it to Oubequanne. This river has an annual swell, which begins in the month of June, and continues till August, when it generally rises so high as to overflow the neighbouring countries. It runs the same way for six months together, owing to the southerly winds, which drive the sands in such shoals that the bar is entirely stopped up, and the current, by that means, driven back, till the wind shifts and removes the sands, when the current is restored to its regular course.

The soil in general is exceeding fertile, and produces various kinds of grain, particularly rice and corn. There is likewise a great variety of fruit trees, particularly oranges, citrons, mangos, cocoas, &c. Here are also various kinds of wood, as the sandal, aquila and japan, sticklack, and lack for japanning.

Cambodia abounds in rice, as also flesh and fish; the two last of which are the only articles allowed to be purchased without a permit from the king. A fine bullock is frequently purchased for a dollar; and the common value of rice is one shilling and six-pence for 140 pounds weight. Poultry, indeed, is very scarce, because the few that are bred, when young, retire to the woods, where they shift for themselves; nor do the people take any pains to seek after them.

Gold, cambogia of a gold colour, or deep yellow, in rolls, raw silk, and elephants teeth, are produced here. There are several sorts of very valuable drugs, and many parts abound with amethysts, garnets, sapphires, cornelians, chrysolites, and blood-stones.

The animals of this country are, wild elephants and boars, which are very numerous, particularly in the woods; tygers and lions: also wild cattle and buffaloes; with many horses, and a prodigious number of deer; all of which every person has free liberty to kill and convert to their own use.

The natives are in general well shaped, and the women in particular handsome. The men wear a long

vest, which reaches from the shoulders to the ancles; but their heads and feet are bare. The women wear a thin garment that fits quit close on the body and arms, and have a kind of petticoat that reaches from the waist to the ancles. Their heads have not any covering, but their hair is dressed and curiously decorated. Both sexes have long hair, and take great pains in displaying it to the greatest advantage.

Their priests are chosen from among the laity, and are little respected by the people in general; nor have they any other provision for their existence than what arises from public benevolence.

Manufactories are established in different parts of the country, for making callicos, muslins, dimities, and other curious pieces, which are very good in quality.

The poorer sort of people are employed in making beads, small idols, bracelets, necklaces, &c. They also weave silk, and work curious tapestry, which is used for lining chairs and palanquins of the quality.

SECTION II.

Of the City of Cambodia.

THE city of Cambodia, which is the capital, is situated on the river Mecon, about an hundred miles from the bar. It is built on a rising ground, in order to avoid the annual overflowings of the river, and principally consists of one large street. About the center of it is a palace for the residence of the prince. It is a very insignificant edifice, surrounded by a kind of wall, with ramparts, in which are several pieces of artillery.

Despotic power prevails here, and favours are only obtained from the prince by pecuniary compliments. When he thinks proper to distinguish any peculiar favourite, he presents him with two swords, one of which is called the sword of state, and the other the sword of justice. The person on whom this honour is bestowed receives them with the greatest marks of humility, and, after prostrating himself to the ground, retires. When he has received this high dignity, the swords must be always carried before him whenever he goes abroad on public occasions; and all people are obliged to compliment him in words adapted to the elevation of his character. If he meets with another who has received the same preferment, they enquire of each other the time of their being honoured with this great distinction, and he who last received it must first salute his superior.

These persons are empowered to hold courts of justice, and the choice of punishment, whether in civil or criminal cases, is left solely to their determination.

The only sort of coin in this kingdom are small pieces of ordinary silver, with characters on one side, but

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but plain on the other, and called galls, the value of which is about four-pence sterling.

SECTION III.

Of the Island of Pulo-Condore.

AS the account hitherto given of this island is very imperfect, and as it is greatly improved, both as to animal and vegetable productions, since the time when it was visited by Dampier, we cannot adhere to our plan of novelty more effectually, than by referring to the journal of Captain King, (successor to our late celebrated countryman Captain Cook,) who states particulars very circumstantially to the following purport.

Pulo-Condore signifies the Island of Calabashes, being derived from two Malay words; Pulo implying an *island*, and Condore a *calabash*, great quantities of which fruit are here produced. It is elevated and mountainous, of a semi-circular form, extends seven or eight miles, and is encompassed by several islands of inferior extent. The anchorage in the harbour is good. The most commodious watering place is at a beach on the east side, where our people found a small stream that supplied them with fourteen or fifteen tons of water in a day. The latitude of the harbour of Condore is 8 deg. 40 min. north; longitude 106 deg. 18 min. west.

The inhabitants of Pulo-Condore, who are fugitives from Cochin and Cambodia, are not numerous. They are very swarthy. Their hair is strait and black; their eyes are remarkably small, and their noses high. They have thin lips, small mouths, and white teeth, and are very courteous in disposition. They go almost naked, except on very particular occasions, when they are dressed in a long garment, girded about the waist, and ornamented with various coloured ribbons.

The principal town is composed of between twenty and thirty houses, which are built contiguous to each other. Besides these, there are six or seven others dispersed about the beach. The roof, the two ends, and the sides that front the country, are constructed of reeds in a neat manner. The opposite, which faces the sea, is perfectly open: but the inhabitants, by means of a kind of screen made of bamboo, can exclude or admit as much of the air and sun as they think proper. At each extremity of the house of one of the chiefs was a room separated by a partition of reeds from the middle space, which was enclosed on either side, and furnished with partition screens. Some Chinese paintings, representing persons of both sexes in ludicrous attitudes, were hung at each end of the middle room. In this apartment a party of our people, who went to visit the chief, were requested to seat themselves on mats, and betel was presented them.

Our party took an opportunity of walking about the town, and did not omit searching, though ineffectually, for the remains of a fort built by some of their countrymen. The English settled on this island in 1702, and

brought with them some Macassar soldiers, who were hired to contribute their assistance in erecting a fort; but the president of the factory not fulfilling his engagement with them, they were determined upon revenge, and one night took an opportunity of murdering all the English in the fort. The island had been purchased by the English of the king of Cambodia, to whom, after this circumstance, it again reverted. The fort was demolished, but some few remains are still visible.

Among the vegetable improvements of Pulo-Condore may be reckoned the fields of rice that were observed. Cocoa-nuts, pomegranates, oranges, shaddock, plantains, and various sorts of pumpkins, were also found here. There are several sorts of fowl, and the woods are plentifully stocked with feathered game.

The buffalos of this island are singular. Some of these animals weigh from seven to eight hundred pounds. Our people had procured eight of them, but were at a loss how to get them on board. After consulting the natives, it was determined they should be driven thro' a wood, and over a hill, down to the bay. This plan was accordingly executed; but the intractableness and amazing strength of the animals, rendered it a slow and difficult operation. The mode of conducting them was by putting ropes through their nostrils, and round their horns: but when they were once enraged at the sight of our people, they became so furious, that they sometimes tore asunder the cartilage of the nostril through which the ropes passed, and set themselves at liberty. At other times they broke the trees to which it was found frequently necessary to fasten them. On such occasions all the endeavours of the sailors for the recovery of them would have been unsuccessful, without the aid of some little boys, whom the buffalos would suffer to approach them, and by whose puerile management their rage was quickly appeased.

A circumstance relative to these animals, which was considered as no less singular than their gentleness towards children, and seeming affection for them, was, that they had not been a whole day on board, before they were as tame as possible. Besides buffalos, there are very large hogs of the Chinese breed; also some of a wild species, that live in the woods, which abound with monkeys and squirrels. One species of the squirrel here observed, was of a beautiful glossy black; and another sort had white and brown stripes. This is denominated the *flying squirrel*.

The land near the harbour is a continued lofty hill richly adorned, from the summit to the edge of the water, with a great variety of fine high trees. Among others, our late voyagers saw that which is called by Dampier the tar-tree, but perceived none that were tapped in the manner described by him.

We have only to observe with respect to the natural productions of this island, that the sea produces great plenty of turtles, limpets, and muscles.

The inhabitants are Pagans, worshipping idols representing horses and elephants.

C H A P. XIV.

K I N G D O M O F L A O S.

SECTION I.

Boundaries and Produce. Nature of the Inhabitants. Manners, Customs, Ceremonies, &c.

LAOS is bounded on the east by Cochin-China and Tonquin, on the west by Brama, on the north by the Lake Chamay, and on the south by Cambodia and Siam. It reaches from the 15th to the 25th degree of north latitude.

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The gardens in this country abound with great variety of fruits, and they have rice in abundance, which, tho' different in taste from that of any other country, is esteemed the best in the east. They have plenty of honey, wax, cotton, amber, and musk; and ivory is so little valued, from the great number of elephants with which the country abounds, that the teeth are used for fences to their fields and gardens. They have prodigious herds of bees and buffalos, and the rivers abound with all kinds of fish, some of which are of an

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immense size. In these rivers are found gold and silver dust; and in several parts of the country are mines of iron, lead, and tin. Salt is also produced here in great abundance, and prodigious quantities of it are exported to foreign parts. It is formed by a white froth left on the rice fields after harvest, which afterwards becomes condensed by the heat of the sun.

The inhabitants of Laos are naturally very affable in their disposition; and though they envy such as are in a more eligible situation than themselves, yet they are strictly honest, and appear to be utter strangers to avaricious sentiments. They are in general well shaped; and though their complexion is of an olive cast, yet they are much fairer than their neighbours. The women are very modest in their carriage; and in other respects little inferior to the women of Portugal.

Rice, the flesh of the buffalo, and several kinds of pulse, chiefly constitute their food. They eat four meals a day, and have very great appetites, notwithstanding which they are seldom afflicted with any diseases. They sometimes eat fowls, which they dress without plucking off the feathers; and they kill them by striking them on the head with a stick, the shedding of blood being considered as one of the greatest crimes.

Husbandry and fishing are their principal employments; but they are naturally of an indolent disposition; nor will they attend business till they are reduced to it from absolute necessity.

Robberies are seldom heard of here; but when such circumstances do happen, if the criminal cannot be found, the neighbours must make restitution to the parties injured.

Adultery is punished in women with loss of liberty, and subjection to such severe treatment as the husband shall think proper to inflict.

Their marriage ceremonies consist only in the parties promising before two who have been some years joined in wedlock, that they will be true to each other so long as they shall live; but they often part from the most trifling circumstances; and this may be attributed to the insignificance of the mode by which they are joined together.

Fornication is permitted among the laity; but the talapouns, or priests, are prohibited from it under severe punishments. Polygamy is also allowed; but the first wife has the pre-eminence, and must be treated with great respect by the others, who are considered more as her servants than her companions.

An opinion of sorcery prevails here, to prevent the effects of which, during the time a woman lies in, all her relations and friends repair to the house, and divert themselves with singing, dancing, and other amusements. They do this that the magicians or sorcerers may not come near the woman; for should that be the case, they would immediately take it for granted, that the infant was bewitched.

The death of a person of rank is celebrated with much splendor, and continues for a month, at the expiration of which a pyramid is erected, on the top whereof the corpse is laid. The talapouns, or priests, (who are the only persons invited to the festival,) then sing certain songs, which they assert qualifies the soul of the deceased for the mansions of paradise. After the priests have finished their songs, the pyramid is set on fire; and when the body is consumed, the ashes are conveyed with great ceremony to the pagod, or usual place of interment, where the better sort of people erect magnificent tombs to perpetuate the memory of their ancestors.

The natives profess the Pagan religion. The talapouns, or priests, are in general very indolent; and though they originate from the most humble stations, yet on their being elevated to the dignity of priest, they assume the most distinguished arrogance. They are under tuition from their childhood till they are twenty-three years of age, when they undergo an examination, and, if approved, are immediately appointed to the order of priesthood.

Power and Dignity of the Sovereign, Officers of State, &c.

IN this country the sovereign is absolute and independent, and disposes of all honours and employments, whether civil or ecclesiastical. The private property of individuals is subject to be converted to such purposes as he shall think proper; so that no person, in fact, who has an estate in land, can properly call it his own. The priests, indeed, have the peculiar privilege of disposing of such things as are immediately occupied; but their property in land is under the direction of mandarins, who let it out to farmers, and one half of every third year's rent is converted to the use of the king.

The greatest homage is paid to the king by all ranks of people. In order to impress his people with a due sense of respect for him, he appears in public twice every year; and his subjects are so elated on this occasion, that they testify their happiness by the most distinguished rejoicings. His superiority over other princes is distinguished from the length of his ears, which are so distended as to hang upon his shoulders. This is considered as a mark of the highest dignity; and the means for obtaining it are used in their infancy, when the fleshy parts of the ears are repeatedly bored, and they are extended by weights hung at the ends of them. The people, in general, are very fond of large ears; but they must be careful that the dimensions of them do not come near to those of their sovereigns.

On all public occasions his subjects exert themselves to express loyalty to his person and government. They bring a variety of wild beasts, particularly elephants, which they decorate with the most superb trappings. They have also wrestlers, gladiators, &c. all of whom assemble in a large area, or field, before the king, who is diverted with their various exhibitions.

The king's court is most splendid when he goes with the mandarins and nobility to offer presents to some distinguished temple. On this particular occasion the king is seated on a beautiful elephant, decorated with trappings of gold, which hang from his sides to the ground. The king is dressed in the most sumptuous manner, his garments being loaded with diamonds of immense value. The mandarins go in front, the king follows next, and the nobility close the procession. The last are mounted on fine horses elegantly decorated; and with them are a great number of cattle, richly dressed, and laden with presents for the idol.

On these days the women are prohibited from being seen in the streets: they therefore look out of their windows when the procession passes, and sprinkle scented water on the king, and the presents that are going to be offered to the idol. The talapouns are dressed in their richest habits, and meet the king as he arrives at their respective convents, after which they attend him during the time he sacrifices the presents to the idol.

Several tributary kings come to court, in order to pay homage to the king of Laos, and they acknowledge their submission to him by magnificent presents.

Seven viceroys attend on the person of the king, the chief of whom is distinguished by the title of viceroy-general. This officer executes the principal business of the government; and, on the death of the king, adjusts all matters, and disposes of all employments, till a successor is chosen to the throne. The seven provinces into which the kingdom are divided are under the government of these viceroys. They support their characters with the highest dignity, and are always consulted by the king in matters of a public nature. They have each a deputy, who officiates for them in their respective provinces, during their absence, or when the affairs of government command their attendance at court.

In every province there is a militia of horse and foot, who are maintained at the expence of that province to which they belong; and the officers are all dependent on the viceroy-general.

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The relations of any chief convicted of committing a capital offence are immediately deprived of their possessions, and for ever after employed in discharging the most servile offices. Crimes are here punished with such severity, that there are few offenders; and in all civil affairs the judge's determination is absolute.

SECTION III.

Of the capital City of Laos.

THE capital city of this kingdom is by some called Lanchang, and by others Lanjeng. It is situated in the interior part of the kingdom, in 18 deg. north latitude. It is defended on one side by the great river Lao, and on the other by high walls and extensive ditches.

The palace is the most distinguished edifice in the city. It is very lofty and magnificent, and, with the offices and other buildings, extends more than two

miles in circumference. The architecture is exceeding grand, and the apartments within are furnished in the most sumptuous manner. The basso relievos in particular are so richly gilt, as to appear as if covered with panes instead of leaves of gold.

The houses of the better sort are built of wood, and are very lofty and handsome; but those of the common people are very low and mean, and chiefly made of dirt and clay. The talapoins, or priests, have liberty to build their houses of brick or stone; but all others are restrained from the like indulgence.

The mansions of persons of rank are in general very elegantly furnished. Instead of tapestry, they line the walls with mats beautifully wrought, and ornamented with foliage, and a great variety of very curious figures.

The inhabitants are all Pagans, and have temples which contain the idols they worship. They are more strict in the execution of their religious ceremonies than the people in any other part of the kingdom, and pay much greater respect to their priests.

C H A P. XV.

K I N G D O M O F T H I B E T.

Situation. Persons, Manners, and Dispositions of the Inhabitants. Food. Religion. Singular Manner of disposing of the Dead. Trade. Commerce, &c. &c.

WE are happy in having it in our power to lay before the reader, a more modern, as well as authentic, account of this country, and its inhabitants, as communicated to us by an ingenious correspondent, who resided lately in India in an official capacity, than any that has been heretofore given.

This kingdom, situated between 30 and 40 degrees north latitude, is divided into two parts. That which lies contiguous to Bengal is distinguished by the name of Boutan: the other, which extends to the northward as far as the frontiers of Tartary, by that of Thibet. Boutan is a mountainous country; but the vallies, and sides of the hills which admit of cultivation, produce crops of wheat, barley, and rice. The inhabitants are a stout and warlike people, of a copper complexion, rather above the middle size, hasty and quarrelsome in their temper, and addicted to the use of spirituous liquors; but honest in their dealings, robbery by violence being almost unknown among them. The chief city is Tassey-Seddem.

Thibet begins properly from the top of the great ridge of the Caucasus, and extends from thence, in breadth, to the confines of Great Tartary. The country is bare and desolate, and the climate severe and rude. The natives of Thibet are of a smaller size than their southern neighbours, and of a less robust make. Their complexions are also fairer; and many of them have even a ruddiness in their countenances unknown in the other climates of the East. They are of a mild and cheerful temper; and the higher ranks are polite and entertaining in conversation; in which they never mix either strained compliments or flattery.

The common people, both in Boutan and Thibet, are clothed in coarse woollen stuffs of their own manufacture, lined with such skins as they can procure; but the better sort are dressed in European cloth, or China silk lined with the finest Siberian fur.

The chief food of the inhabitants is the milk of their cattle made into cheese, butter, or mixed with the flour of a coarse barley, or of peas. They are supplied with fish from the rivers in their own and the neighbouring provinces, salted, and sent into the interior parts. They have no want of animal food, from the quantity of cattle, sheep and hogs which are raised on their hills; nor are they destitute of game.

They have a singular method of preparing their mutton, by exposing the carcase entire, after the bowels are taken out, to the sun and bleak northern winds, which blow in the months of August and September, without frost, and so dry up the juices, and parch the skin, that the meat will keep uncorrupted for the year round. This they generally eat raw, without any other preparation. Our correspondent was often regaled with this dish, which, however unpalatable at first, he afterwards preferred to their dressed mutton; which, he says, was generally lean, tough, and rank. He farther says, it was very common for the head man in the villages through which he passed, to make him presents of sheep so prepared, set before him on their legs, as if they had been alive; which had at first a very odd appearance.

The religion and political constitution of this country are intimately blended together. At present, and ever since the expulsion of the Tartars, the kingdom of Thibet is regarded as depending on the empire of China, which they call Cathay; and there actually reside two mandarins, with a garrison of a thousand Chinese, at Lahassa, the capital, to support the government; but their power does not extend far. In fact, the Lama, whose empire is founded on the surest grounds, personally affecting religious reverence, governs every thing internally with unbounded authority. The people believe the Delai, or Grand Lama, to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Though celibacy is not positively enjoined by the Lamas, it is held indispensable for both men and women who embrace a religious life: indeed, their forms, rites, and ceremonies of religion, must resemble those of the church of Rome.

Polygamy, at least according to our acceptation of the word, is not in practice here; but yet it may be said to exist in a manner still more repugnant to European ideas; that is, the plurality of husbands, which is firmly established and highly respected. It is usual at Thibet, for the brothers in a family to have a wife in common; and they generally live in harmony and comfort with her, though sometimes little dissensions will arise.

The manner in which these people bestow their dead is also singular. They neither put them in the ground, like the Europeans; nor burn them, like the Hindoos; but expose them on the bleak pinnacle of one of the neighbouring mountains, to be devoured by wild beasts, and birds of prey, or wasted by time and the vicissitudes

tudes of the weather in which they lie. The mangled carcases, and bleached bones, lie scattered about; and amidst this scene of horror some miserable old wretch, man or woman, lost to all feelings but those of superstition, generally sets up an abode, to perform the office of receiving the bodies; assigning each a place, and gathering up the remains when too widely dispersed.

Lahassa, the capital of Thibet, is a place of considerable size, populous, and flourishing. It is the residence of the chief officers of government, and of the Chinese mandarins, and their suite. It is also inhabited by Chinese and Cassimirian merchants and artificers, and is the daily resort of numberless traders from all quarters, who come in occasional parties, or in caravans, which travel at stated times.

The chief trade from Lahassa to Peking is carried on by caravans, that employ full two years in the journey thither and back again; which is not surprising, when we consider, that the distance cannot be less than two thousand English miles, as well as the stoppages consequent on trade: and yet it is to be observed, that an express from Lahassa sometimes reaches Pe-king in little more than three weeks; a circumstance much to the honour of the Chinese police, in establishing so speedy and effectual a communication, through deserts and mountains, for so long a way.

With respect to the commerce of these people, our correspondent observes, that, besides their traffic with their neighbours in horses, hogs, rock-salt, coarse cloths, and other commodities, they enjoy four staple articles; which are sufficient in themselves to procure every foreign commodity of which they stand in need.

The first, though least considerable, is that of the cow-tails, so famous all over India, Persia, and the other kingdoms of the East. It is produced by a species of cow, or bullock, of a larger size than common, with short horns, and no hump on its back. Its skin is covered with whitish hair, of a silky appearance; but its chief singularity is in its tail, which spreads out broad and long, with flowing hairs, like that of a beautiful

mare, but much finer, and far more glossy. These tails sell very high; and are used, mounted on silver handles, for chowras, or brushes, to drive away the flies: and no man of consequence in India ever goes out, or sits down, without two chowrawbadars, or brushers, attending him, with such instruments in their hands.

The next article is the wool, from which the shawl, the most delicate woollen manufacture in the world, is made. Till our correspondent visited Thibet, it was concluded, that the materials of the shawls, as they come from Cassimire, were of that country's growth. It was said to be the hair of some particular goat, the fine under-hair from a camel's breast, and many other fancies; but it is now known, for a certainty, to be the produce of a Thibet sheep. They are of a small breed; in figure, like our sheep, except in their tails, which are very broad; but their fleeces, for the fineness, length, and beauty of the wool, exceed all others in the world. The Cassimirians engross this article, and have factors established for its purchase in every part of Thibet, from whence it is sent to Cassimire, where it is worked up, and becomes a source of great wealth to that country, as well as it has been, and still is, to Thibet.

Musk is another of their staple commodities, produced from the deer common in the mountains of Thibet; but they being excessively shy, and frequently in places most wild and difficult of access, it becomes a trade of great trouble and danger to hunt after.

The last article is gold, of which great quantities are exported from Thibet. It is found in the sands of the great river, as well as in most of the small brooks and torrents that pour from the mountains. Although they have their gold in plenty in Thibet, they do not employ it in coin, of which their government never strike any; but it is still used as a medium of commerce, and goods are rated there by the price of gold dust, as here by money. The Chinese draw it from them, to a great amount, every year, in return for the produce of their labours and arts.

C H A P XVI.

E M P I R E O F A V A, &c.

S E C T I O N I.

Situation. Boundaries. Productions, &c. &c.

THE empire of Ava is situated between the latitude of 15 and 28 degrees north, and bounded by Tibet on the north; by the kingdoms of Laos and Siam on the east; by Bengal on the west; and by the Indian sea on the south.

Ava is said to be larger than the whole empire of Germany. The king of Pegu was originally in possession of the greater part of it: but two mighty princes of Ava and Siam have destroyed that monarchy: and the king of Ava is emperor of both Ava and Pegu.

The opulence of the emperor is seen in the magnificence of his palace; "which, according to Captain Hamilton, is built of stone, and has four grand gates, viz. the eastern gate, called the golden, because ambassadors are admitted at it, who make presents to the emperor, when they approach his royal person; the southern gate, or gate of justice, at which people enter who want to present petitions; the western gate, or gate of grace, through which such persons pass as have been honoured with any particular favour, or have been acquitted of any offence unjustly laid to their charge; and the northern gate, or gate of state, through which the emperor passes when he is inclined to shew himself to his people."

Several neighbouring states are tributary to the sovereign of Ava. Pegu, which is within the tropics, is flooded when the sun is vertical; but the slime, left by the waters, gently fertilizes the low lands. As to the higher ground, this is parched with intense heat after the rains have ceased; and the natives are obliged to water their fields by the communication of small channels from cisterns and reservoirs.

The hills of Pegu are clothed with fine wood, and the bamboos are of great utility to the natives. The country abounds with oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, pomegranates, bananas, durians, mangoes, goyvas, cocoa-nuts, pine-apples, tamarinds, &c.

The inhabitants use a great deal of rice, and some wheat: they have plenty of garden stuff, which is a chief part of their food. They have also pulse of various kinds, good poultry, and a variety of fish. In some of the royal parks are ponds of clear water, where tortoises of a middle size are kept and fed, the shells of which are a mixture of several colours. With these they work up many things, as cabinets, boxes, and other furniture, making very handsome work, for the shells are polished like diamonds, and are transparent.

The country produces rubies, small diamonds, and other precious stones; iron, tin, and lead; salt-petre, wood-oil, oil of earth, elephants teeth, sugars, &c. The iron is said to be so excellent in its quality, as to be little inferior to steel.

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There are here but few horses or sheep, but the people plough with oxen and buffaloes. Deer are exceedingly numerous here; but though these animals are very fleshy, they are not fat. No place abounds more in elephants than this and the adjacent countries; they compute the strength of their armies by the number and size of these animals.

SECTION II.

Persons and Dress of the Inhabitants. Predilection of the Women for Europeans. Benevolent Disposition of the Priests.

THE women are considerably fairer than the men, who are of an olive complexion. Both are thinly clad, and the best among them wear neither stockings or shoes. They let their hair grow long, which they tie on the top of their heads with a ribband, in the form of a pyramid. When the ladies go abroad to pay visits, they wear either a cotton or silken frock, under which is a scarf girded round the waist, and hanging almost to their ancles. This dress is said to have been the invention of a queen of this country, who considered it as the most graceful dress that could adorn the female sex.

The females of this country are very fond of strangers; so that any man, during his stay, may be accommodated with a temporary helpmate: hence most of the foreigners who trade hither marry one of these wives, who are very obedient and obliging to their husbands. The wife goes to market, dresses the victuals, takes care of her husband's effects, and even sells his retail commodities for him. If she proves false the husband sells her as a slave; and if he proves false she poisons him.

The wife, when a husband quits the country, at the expiration of a twelvemonth marries again, provided the husband does not leave her a maintenance by a monthly allowance.

The talapoins, or priests, recommend charity and humanity as the greatest of all virtues; and, indeed, these men do honour to human nature, if the accounts given of them be literally authentic. When the master of a vessel happens to be shipwrecked on the coast, and, by this calamity, becomes the slave of the sovereign, the talapoins humanely intercede for him, and take him under their pious care and protection. In their temples these good men supply a distressed stranger with every thing he wants: and as they are physicians as well as priests, they tenderly take care of sick persons, and, after their recovery, give them letters of recommendation to some other convent on the road they travel.

The actions of these men are influenced by real charity and benevolence. They never make any enquiries about a stranger; it is enough that he be a human being, and that they can relieve his necessities. All religions are by them deemed good, which inculcate the moral duties and social virtues. They think that persecution, and all modes of worship which are contrary to humanity, or universal philanthropy, are obnoxious to Providence; and that the Almighty delights in being adored in various ceremonies; but that all modes of adoration should be consistent with the most refined benevolence. In fine, their maxims are calculated to infuse in the human heart unbounded charity and general toleration, and to

Grasp the whole world of reason, life, and sense,
In one close system of benevolence;
Happier as kinder in whate'er degree;
And height of bliss but height of charity.

SECTION III.

Temples, Idols, Sacrifices, Superstition, and Festivals.

MUCH pageantry is displayed in their temples, and the decoration of their idols. In the temple of Kiakiack is a large figure lying in the attitude of

sleeping, and which is pretended to have lain 6000 years in this posture.

The other temple is called Dagon; but none except the priests must enter there.

Some of the sacrifices of these people are very singular. Having immolated a white sheep, and mingled its blood with meal, on the day of the grand festival of Kiakiack, they distribute it with exhortations. For the celebration of another sort of sacrifice, they purchase a slave at a very high price, who is youthful and handsome, and having purified him, they cloath him in a white robe, and make a public shew of him till the day of his dissolution, which is in about thirty days, when they conduct him to a temple, and laying him flat on a stone, rip up his belly, and then taking out his heart, burn it, and offer it in sacrifice to the idol of the place.

As the Peguans believe that all the ills which befall mankind proceed from certain evil spirits that hover about: they therefore worship these demons, in order that they may not be afflicted by them.

Persons of high rank attend at their grand festivals in their richest apparel, adorned with jewels. Here they dance to music, which, from brisk and lively, changes to doleful and melancholic; when, in very plaintive strains, they sing of their ancestors; the men alternately sighing, the ladies weeping, and all acknowledging they shall never equal their good ancestors, who performed such and such great feats. After a general lamentation, they revive their spirits with good food, and resume their merriment.

SECTION IV.

Power, Splendour, and Pomp of the Emperor. Punishment inflicted on Criminals. Government. Form of proclaiming War.

THE emperor of Ava is despotic; all his commands are laws. He is treated with the most fulsome adulation by his subjects, who, either in speaking or writing to him, stile him a god.

To see his majesty's face is the grandest honour that can be conferred. When an ambassador approaches this great prince, he is attended by sound of trumpet, while heralds proclaim aloud the honour and happiness he is about to receive. The king is at this time attended by all his ministers, and 200 guards, some with daggers, and others with steel bows finely polished.

As soon as the king has breakfasted, his majesty retires to an apartment, from whence he can see the persons who are about the palace, without being seen: and that he may be thoroughly informed of every thing of moment that passes either in the city of Ava (the metropolis) or any of his provinces, deputies of great officers, and governors, are always resident in the palace: for he holds the reins of government entirely in his own hands, and punishes, with great rigour, such officers and governors as are guilty of mal-practices. When he hears of the commission of any enormous crime, he issues his royal mandate for such offence to be tried by judges of his own choosing; and, if the delinquent be convicted, he fixes the particular punishment to be inflicted, which is the being trampled to death by elephants, or some other equally cruel mode of punishing.

The respective towns in the dominions of the king of Ava have a kind of aristocratical government. The governor seldom presides in council, but appoints a deputy and twelve judges, who meet in a large hall, and every man has the privilege of pleading his own cause.

If a man is committed to prison for debt, and cannot, or will not, pay his creditor, the latter may dispose of him as a slave; and this privilege granted to creditors stimulates the common people to industry.

On the declaration of war, the heralds proclaim their sovereign's will with flaming torches in their hands; and the governors of provinces are obliged to raise such a number of troops as the state wants, in addition to the

accustomed military establishment. Upon these occasions a troop of perhaps 1000 elephants are soon seen in full march, the king seated on his throne upon the back of one of the whitest, attended by all his nobles, with trumpets, and other military music, sounding as they march to the field of war.

SECTION V.

OF THE KINGDOM OF ARACCAN, OR ARACHIAN.

ARACCAN, which is called by some the empire of Mogo, is bounded on the east by Ava, on the west by the bay and country of Bengal, and on the north by Tipra. It extends about 400 miles in length, and contains a great number of places, many of which are uninhabited, from the multiplicity of wild beasts that infest the whole country.

For the major part the inhabitants of this kingdom are very robust, and distinguished by having remarkable broad and flat foreheads. They are so fond of this particular in their shape, that when a child is born, they bind a plate of lead on the forehead, which they do not remove till they are satisfied it has had the wished-for effect. Their noses are exceeding red, and the nostrils wide; but their eyes are small, and quick of discernment.

The colour of the habits of the common people is generally a dark purple. Those of distinction wear vestments of white cotton, with an apron before them, and a kind of bag behind their back formed in plaits. Their hair is divided into locks, each of which is tied and ornamented with knots of fine cloth.

The women are much fairer in complexion than the men, but are proportionably robust. They wear a garment made of cotton, which is bound several times round the body, and reaches down to the ankles; and over their necks and shoulders they have a kind of handkerchief, made of flowered gauze. The better sort wear a silk scarf on one of their arms, and decorate their hair with a variety of ornaments. They have rings in their ears which are made of glass, and so large as to hang on the shoulders: and the arms and legs are ornamented with bracelets of silver, copper, ivory, &c.

Their houses are exceeding small, and are made with branches of palm-trees, or canes built upon pillars, and covered with leaves of the cocoa-tree: but the better sort have more spacious buildings. All the houses, however, are made without chimnies, or any convenience for firing; so that they dress their victuals without doors in earthen pots.

This country abounds with all kinds of provisions, but the people are exceeding temperate in their diet. Their common drink is made from the leaves of a tree resembling the palm-tree, which, if drank new, is very sweet, but in a few days will turn sour; and instead of bread they use rice.

The soil is very fertile, and produces all kinds of fruit, with various sorts of grain. The climate is very healthful and pleasant in summer; but in winter it is much otherwise; for the inhabitants are subject to agues, from the great rains that fall during that season, which continues from April till October.

The buffalos and elephants here testify a particular disgust at those that wear red garments; but these beasts are easily governed by the herdsmen, and will readily follow him when they are assembled together, which is effected by the sound of a horn.

The sovereign, who is as powerful as any of his neighbours, generally resides at the capital. He has twelve princes under him, whose residences are in the chief cities of the kingdom, and they are permitted to assume the title of kings. The king himself is stiled "Emperor of Araccan, possessor of the white elephant, with the two Caniques, rightful heir of Peger and Brama, and lord of the twelve kings, who lay their hair of their heads under the soles of his feet, &c." He is seen by his subjects but once in five years, at which

time the palace is surrounded with buildings and scaffolds erected on the occasion. The king comes from the palace dressed in the most sumptuous manner, seated in an elegant tent placed on the back of an elephant, richly caparisoned. He is followed by his courtiers riding on elephants, whose harness and trappings are superbly adorned. The king then, with his attendants, rides through the principal streets of the city, after which he returns to the great square before his palace, where his subjects renew their oath of allegiance to him, and the evening is concluded by all ranks of people with the greatest festivity.

Their temples, and other sacred places, are built like steeples, and contain many idols, whom they worship. They hold a feast annually in commemoration of the dead, at which time they carry one of their idols in procession, attended by a number of priests dressed in one uniform, consisting of a long garment made of yellow sattin. The idol is placed in a large heavy chariot, and such is the superstitious notion of the poorer sort of people, that many will throw themselves under the wheels, and others will tear their flesh with iron hooks fastened to the carriage for that purpose. They take great pains to colour these hooks with their blood, and they are afterwards hung up in the temples, and preserved as relics.

The highest order of priests is distinguished by wearing a yellow mitre; but the other two always go bare-headed; and they are all prohibited from marrying, on pain of being degraded.

The priests pray with such as are ill, in return for which the patient offers sacrifices of fowls, &c. in proportion to their respective abilities. If the patient recovers, it is attributed to the prayers received from the priest; but if he dies, the priests tell their relations that their sacrifices are accepted, but the Deity designs the patient a greater favour in the other world. If the patient appears incurable, the priest thinks it charity to drown him.

A person of distinction dying, the body is burned; but the poorer sort are thrown into the river. They believe in transmigration, and therefore ornament their coffins with the figures of such animals as they think the most noble. Every family has some particular animal by whom they swear, and whose figure they mark with a hot iron on different parts of their bodies. Their nuptial ceremonies are performed in the presence of this animal, and they always offer him part of their provisions before they eat.

The capital of this kingdom is Araccan: it is large and well fortified, situated in a valley, and fifteen miles in circumference. It is enclosed by very high stone walls, and surrounded by a ridge of steep craggy mountains, so artificially formed as to render a penetration almost impregnable; besides which, there is a castle within strongly fortified. The city is well watered by a fine river that passes through it in different streams, and at length forms two channels, which empty themselves into the bay of Bengal.

There are said to be 160,000 inhabitants in this city, exclusive of foreigners. The houses in general are small, and built of bamboos; but those of the better sort are spacious and handsome. In it are upwards of 600 idol temples, most of which are spacious buildings, elegantly ornamented. The palace is exceedingly magnificent, being decorated with the most costly ornaments. The apartments are lined with various kinds of wood, that discharge the most agreeable fragrance; and the roofs of those belonging to the king are covered with plates of gold. In the center of the palace is the great hall, which contains a canopy ornamented with wedges of solid gold, resembling sugar-loaves.

Several idols of the same metal, as large as life, and ornamented with diamonds and other costly jewels, are placed here. In the center of the hall is a cabinet of gold, supported by a large stool of the same metal, and overlaid with diamonds and other precious stones. This cabinet contains the two Caniques, or famous pendants of

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of rubies, which the king wears at his coronation, and by which he preserves a superior authority over his vassal princes.

Without the palace are spacious stables for the king's elephants, tigers, horses, &c. and near it is a considerable lake with small islands, inhabited chiefly by priests. This lake is so situated as to be a security to the inhabitants of the city, should they be reduced to the necessity of flight by an attack from an enemy; for by cutting a bank which surrounds it, they might overflow the city, and retire to the islands.

The environs of this city are very extensive, and the adjoining countries delightfully pleasant. The villages, mountains, &c. are beautifully diversified with fields of different kinds of grain, intermixed with pieces of water, and numerous flocks of cattle.

In the neighbourhood is a Dutch factory: and at many of the shops in the city are to be purchased some of the richest commodities in Asia.

There are many cities of considerable note in different parts of this kingdom, as also many capital towns, remarkable for traffic; the most material of which are

Orietan, which is situated on a branch of the river, to the south-west of the city of Araccan. This is one of the twelve capital cities, and is governed by a viceroy, who assumes the title of king, and receives a crown from the king himself.

Near this city is a large mountain, on which is a fortified place for the confinement of state prisoners, or other distinguished criminals. There is another mountain called Pora, on the top of which is placed their principal idol, which is worshipped by the king himself on a certain day once in the year. Between the cities of Araccan and Orietan is a spacious river, the banks of which are delightfully shaded with tall trees, that form, as it were, an harbour; the pleasure of sailing under which is considerably heightened by the multiplicity of peacocks that are continually moving from one tree to another. These birds are exceeding beautiful, and fully answer the fine description of them given in the book of Job, which is thus elegantly paraphrased by Dr. Young:

How rich the peacock! what bright glories run
From plume to plume, and vary in the sun!
He proudly spreads them to the golden ray;
Gives all his colours, and adorns the day!
With conscious state the spacious round displays,
And slowly moves amid the waving blaze.

Rama is a city of considerable note, but little resorted to on account of the great danger in getting to it either by land or water: the former being dangerous from the number of wild beasts with which the mountains are infested, and the latter from its being subject to sudden tempests.

Dobazi is another large and populous city; but is chiefly remarkable for having a good harbour, and a spacious river, by which great trade is carried on with the neighbouring places.

Dianga is a large town, situated 120 miles north of Araccan; the inhabitants of which are chiefly Portuguese fugitives, and are indulged with very considerable privileges.

Peroem, or Peom, is a town of great trade, and has a very convenient harbour. It is the residence of a governor, who keeps a grand court, and exercises the absolute authority of an eastern monarch.

SECTION VI.

THE KINGDOM OF TIPRA.

THIS kingdom is bounded by the empire of Ava, and part of China, to the south and east, by Independent Tartary to the north, by Araccan to the south west, and by Indostan to the west. Tavernier informs us, that to cross it requires fifteen days. It is ex-

ceedingly hot, being under the Tropic of Cancer. The air is, nevertheless, pure and salubrious: but the water is so bad, that it occasions the throats of the inhabitants to swell to a prodigious size. The sovereign, and the nobility, ride upon elephants, or are carried in palanquins; but the common people, in travelling, make use of horses or oxen indiscriminately. The accommodations for strangers are bad, and the behaviour of the natives rude and unpolished. The subjects of this kingdom pay no taxes, but in lieu thereof labour annually one week for the king, either in his mines, or among his silk-worms, from whence alone his revenues accrue. He exports gold and silver to China in ingots, and in return receives silver which is coined into two species of currency, of 1s. 8d. and 1s. 10d. value each. Gold is coined into aspers, which are worth about 5s. each. The sovereign of this country is tributary to the king of Araccan. The river Caipourno runs from Chiamay lake through this and many other kingdoms, till it disembogues itself into Bengal bay.

SECTION VII.

THE KINGDOM OF BOUTAN, OR LASSA.

THIS kingdom has China on the east, Thibet and the Mogul's dominions on the west, Tartary on the north, and Asem on the south.

A late celebrated traveller says, that when the merchants of Patna and Bengal come to the foot of the Naugracut mountains, they are carried over them on the backs of women; there being three women, who alternately relieve each other, to every traveller. The baggage and provisions are carried by goats, who climb the mountains with wonderful agility, and are able to bear 150lb. weight. They are a week in passing these mountains. The women, for their trouble, receive to the value of a crown each; and the same sum is paid for every loaded goat.

Both sexes wear a kind of felt in winter, and sustain in summer. They wear a high cap adorned with pieces of tortoiseshell, or boars teeth, which they deem grand embellishments. The women decorate their necks with necklaces of amber or coral; and both male and female wear bracelets on the left arm, from the elbow to the wrist. They are exceeding fond of spirituous liquors, and conclude their entertainments by burning amber. Here is plenty of corn, rice, pulse, grapes, mustard-seed, rhubarb, musk, furs, coral, &c.

The natives, who are gross idolaters, more particularly venerate a cow, which they term "the nurse of mankind."

The use of fire-arms has prevailed here many years. From inscriptions on some of their pieces of cannon, they appear to be 500 years old. None are permitted to quit the kingdom without a special licence from government; nor must any one take a musket with him, unless he gives proper security to bring it back again. On the backs of their elephants and camels they place small cannon, which carry half pound balls. The king is always in fear of treason, and has a guard of 8000 men constantly attending him; though at the same time he is vain enough to call himself a god, endued with the attributes of "invincibility and invulnerability!"

The natives have mostly flat noses, are strong and well made; but the women are more robust than the men. Silver mines are said to abound in this country, and, by the king's order, silver money is coined here, each piece being of the value of 2s. 6d. and of an octagonal form. They have no gold but what is got in trade.

SECTION VIII.

THE KINGDOM OF ASEM, AZEM, OR ACHAM.

THIS kingdom is bounded by China on the east, Indostan on the west, Tipra on the south, and Boutan, with part of Independent Tartary, on the north. The

The country, in the reign of Aurrengzebe, was conquered by the Moguls, who discovered it by navigating the river Lacquia, which has its source in the lake Chiamay, and discharges itself into the Ganges. The above mentioned celebrated Indian lake is 180 leagues in circumference, and lies in 26 deg. north latitude.

Besides being one of the most fertile in the universe, this country is rich in mines, which produce both the noblest and most useful metals, viz. gold, silver, steel, iron, lead, &c. There is plenty of the most delicious animal food, but dog's flesh is deemed the greatest dainty. They make no wine, though they have excellent grapes, which, when dried, are used in making brandy. The lakes of this country are of a saline quality, and the scum which arises to their surface is converted into salt. Another kind of salt is extracted from the leaves of what is called Adam's fig-tree: and a ley is made which renders their silks admirably white.

No taxes whatever are paid to government, the king contenting himself with the sole possession of the valuable mines which his country contains. Nor are those mines worked by the natives, but by slaves, which he purchases of his neighbours.

To every subject is allotted a house, a large piece of ground contiguous thereto, and an elephant to carry his wives, of whom he is permitted to have four. Previous to marriage, the Afemians inform the women minutely of what they expect them to do. The females being thus precisely instructed in their duty seldom disoblige their husbands. The inhabitants towards the north have good complexions; but those who dwell southerly are rather swarthy. All have very large holes bored in their ears, from whence descend heavy pendants of gold and silver. They wear their hair long, have a cap upon their heads, and go naked, except about their middles. They adorn their arms with bracelets, which are buried with them when they die. Their gold is current in ingots; but they have pieces of silver coin, each 2s. in value. They have great plenty of gum lacque, which they export to China and Japan, to varnish cabinets, chests, &c.

The residence of the king, which is in the metropolis, lies in 25 deg. 23 min. north latitude, and is named Kemmeroofe, or Guergen. The city of Azoo is the

royal burial place. When any king is buried in the grand temple, his favourite idol is buried. This always being of gold or silver, the vaults are filled with immense treasures. The people imagine that the righteous have, in the other world, plenty of what they desire, but that the wicked suffer all the miseries of hunger and thirst.

From this opinion, and not entertaining any very high idea of the morality or piety of their monarchs, they bury with them all kinds of eatables, great riches, several of their wives, officers, elephants, slaves, &c. lest they should fare worse in the other world than they did in this.

The Chinese are supposed to have received from the people of Afem the invention of gunpowder, though they have since thought proper to arrogate it to themselves.

The following places near the coast of Ava are reckoned in the Pegu dominions.

1. The Island of Dola, which has a good harbour, and where twenty houses are appropriated to the purpose of taming elephants for the use of the king of Pegu.

2. Cosmin is a fertile island. The houses of the natives are built on frames of wood, and ascended to by ladders, on account of the furious tygers with which this country abounds. The inhabitants go from hence to Pegu in boats, in which whole families reside all the year. This country produces figs, oranges, cocoanuts, wild boars, parrots, asses, &c.

3. Meden is a tolerable town, where a market is kept on the water in boats, the commodities being shaded from the scorching-sun-beams by umbrellas.

4. Negrais is a town and cape on the coast, due westward from Pegu, from whence it requires about ten days to sail. The harbour is good, but a shelving bar renders its entrance disagreeable and dangerous.

5. Diamond Island, near cape Segrals, is celebrated for two Pagan temples. This island is low, barren, and rocky. The chief ecclesiastic of the kingdom resides here. He is greatly venerated by the people, and takes the right hand of the king, who, on his demise, is obliged to attend his funeral with his whole court, and to defray all expences thereby incurred.

C H A P. XVII.

M A L A C C A.

SECTION I.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, and Division. Coasts. Vegetables and Animals. Account of the Natives. Their Language.

THIS peninsula is situated between the 2d and 11th degree of north latitude, and bounded by Siam on the north, by the ocean on the east, and by the straits of Malacca on the south-east, being about 600 miles long, and 200 broad. It is separated into small kingdoms, viz. Malacca, from which it has its name, Johor, Patana, Sincapour, Pahan, Trangano, Pera, Queda, and Ligor. Some of these are independant states under different despotic princes, and others are tributary to the king of Siam.

Malacca is said to have been originally joined to the Island of Sumatra, and to be the Aurea Chersonesus of Ptolemy. The coasts of the kingdom are flat, marshy, and unhealthful; and the inland parts of the country consist of scarce any thing but barren hills and dreary deserts: so that it produces nothing for exportation, except a small quantity of tin, and some elephants teeth. The common necessities of life are produced in gardens; and small quantities of peas and rice are reared

in such parts of the mountains as appear to have any tolerable soil. The natives have a supply of provisions from Sumatra, Bengal, Java, Siam, and Cambodia. Here is, however, a variety of fruits, and particularly the mangostan, which is very delicious, and resembles a pine-apple. Here are cocoas in abundance, and a great plenty of aloes; and as to pine-apples, there are no better in the universe than are to be had here. The rambostan, a fine fruit, is about as big as a walnut, with most delicious pulp; and the durian, though not pleasant to the smell, has a very agreeable taste.

Though sheep and bullocks are scarce here, pork, poultry, and fish, are pretty plentiful. The wild animals of the country are tygers, wolves, &c.

The complexion of the natives, who are called Malays, is tawny; and those inhabiting the inland parts of the country are remarkable for the ferocity of their manners. The men go naked, except having a piece of cloth round their waists.

The women of Malacca, who have their hair very long, and are extremely proud, wear a loose silken garment, embroidered with silver or gold. Both sexes have jewels in their ears.

While nature had done every thing in favour of the Malays in their pristine state; while she had bounteously provided

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provided for them, by placing them in a serene and salubrious clime, where refreshing gales and cooling streams assuage the heat of the torrid zone; where the soil teems with delicious fruits, where the trees are clothed with a continual verdure, and the flowers breathe their odours, society has done them every possible injury: for such has been the influence of an arbitrary government, that the natives of the most happy country in the globe have become remarkably ferocious in their manners. The feudal system, which was first concerted among the woods and rocks of the north, has reached the serene regions of the equator. The Malays are governed by despotic princes. This scene of arbitrary domain occasioned a general savageness of manners. In vain did bounteous heaven bestow her rich blessings on the Malays; these celestial gifts served only to make the people ungrateful and discontented. Masters let out their servants, or rather those of their dependants, to the highest bidders, heedless of the loss which husbandry would suffer in the want of hands.

When the Portuguese took possession of the chief city of these people, the latter, ill brooking a submission to their new masters, either retired into the inland parts, or dispersed themselves along the coast. Having lost the spirit of commerce, they imbibed that of conquest, and subdued a large Archipelago on their coast, while the Portuguese rendered Malacca the most considerable market in India. Lost to all commerce, they fell into every excess of fierceness and barbarity, and committed murder, when harm was least expected.

Some, however, there are, who are polished, well-bred, and humane; who distinguish themselves by their talents, and particularly in the use of a language esteemed the most pure, nervous, harmonious, and copious, of any spoken in the Indies. They study it with great care; and many do honour to its natural graces, by furnishing elegant poetic compositions.

SECTION II.

Of the City of Malacca.

THIS city is said to have been founded upwards of 200 years before the arrival of the Portuguese in 1509: and in the year 1511, Alphonso Albuquerque subdued the city, after it had made a most vigorous defence. He plundered it of immense treasures, vast magazines, and whatever could contribute to the elegancies and pleasures of life, and then put the prince to death. The king of Siam, enraged at this cruelty, afterwards took the city by storm, assisted by other princes equally incensed against the murderer. But the Portuguese afterwards retook it, and built churches, monasteries, a castle, and a college for the jesuits. In the year 1606 the Dutch, in conjunction with the king of Johor, began to be very troublesome to the Portuguese, and, after a series of hostilities for the space of thirty-five years, deprived them of it in 1641, by the following means. Finding that considerable disputes had subsisted between the king of Johor and the Portuguese inhabitants, the Dutch instantly formed a design of attacking and reducing the place. Accordingly they fitted out a formidable squadron of ships at Batavia, and entered into an alliance with the king of Johor, who attacked the city by land, while the Dutch invested it by sea: but the invaders finding there was no possibility of reducing it, and hearing that the governor was a very sordid, worthless man, the Dutch, by letters secretly conveyed to him, offered him a considerable premium, if he would facilitate the surrender of the fort. The bribe was accepted; the Dutch soon entered the place, and, to save the payment of the premium, murdered the governor.

Malacca is an extensive and populous city, surrounded with a stone wall and bastions. Many of the streets are spacious and handsome, and shaded with trees on both sides. The houses stand pretty close to each other,

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and are built chiefly of bamboos, though some of them are of stone. The governor's house is handsome and commodious, and is situated in the fort, garrisoned by 200 Europeans. The harbour is one of the best and safest in that part of the globe, and receives vessels from most parts of the Indies. When possessed by the Portuguese, the city was remarkably opulent, being a grand mart for precious stones and gold: and before the Dutch made Batavia the chief place of their commerce, it had all the rich commodities of Pegu, Coromandel, and other countries: but at present it has little commerce.

SECTION III.

THE KINGDOMS OF JOHOR, SINCAPOUR, PATANA, PAHAN, AND TRANGANO.

THE first of these kingdoms is about 100 leagues long, and 80 broad: it is the next country to the north of Malacca, and washed east and west by the ocean. It lies in one degree north latitude.

The country, which is woody, abounds with tin, pepper, elephants teeth, gold, aquila wood, canes, citrons, lemons, &c. and among the quadrupedes are deer, cows, wild boars, and buffalos.

The inhabitants are characterised as cruel, treacherous, lazy, and lascivious. The common people, of both sexes, wear nothing more than a piece of stuff round their waist. The females, in a superior degree of life, wear callico garments fastened with a sicken girdle. They paint their nails yellow, and the longer they are the more genteel. The islanders live principally upon sago, fruits, roots, and poultry: but those natives who reside on the coast subsist, for the most part, upon fish and rice, brought from Java, Siam, and Cambodia.

About 1400 Chinese families reside here, who are distinguished for their industry, and carry on a considerable traffic.

The natives, who are a mixture of Mahometans and Pagans, have priests sent to them from Surat.

The Johor Islands lie to the north-east of Cape Romano, but produce nothing fit for carrying on commerce. Pulo-Aure, one of them, is peopled by Malays, who are said to form a sort of republic, headed by a chief. In this island are several mountains, which produce plenteous plantations of cocoa-trees. Articles in trade are purchased here with iron; and the people have the character of being very honest, friendly, and hospitable.

Sincapour, or Sincapora island and town, lie at the southernmost point of the peninsula of Malacca, and give name to the south-east part of Malacca Straits. Here is a mountain which yields excellent diamonds, and sugar-canes grow to a great size. The soil of Sincapour is fruitful, and the woods produce good timber for ship-building.

On the eastern coast of Siam lies Patana, which is about 60 miles long. Its port had once a considerable traffic with Coromandel, Malabar, Goa, China, Tonquin and Cambodia, but the traders unhappily finding no restriction put upon the commission of piracies and murders, were under the necessity of withdrawing their commerce, and turning it into another course, highly beneficial to Siam, Malacca, and Batavia. Patana abounds with grain and fruits. Here are buffalos, fowls, and some of the most beautiful doves ever seen. The wild animals are tygers, monkeys, elephants, &c.

The king of Patana can bring 18,000 troops into the field, and has more vessels than any of the other neighbouring sovereigns. The Chinese bring hither a variety of articles in trade, and take considerable returns.

The natives, though proud, are kind and obliging, and remarkable for their sobriety.

Pahan lies to the south of Patana, on a river of the same name, in which there is much gold-dust found. People of fortune reside in the capital of Pahan, situated

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ted about 150 miles north-east of Malacca. The city, which is but small, has the appearance of a garden, from the number of cocoa and other trees planted in the streets.

The king's palace is a wooden structure, and the other buildings are in general of reeds and straw.

Along the sides of the river, which washes the foot of Malacca hill, is planted pepper. The adjacent country is low, woody, and well stored with game. Aquila and Calamba wood, coarse gold, camphire, nutmegs, &c. are also produced here.

Pahan is well peopled, and carries on a considerable traffic; but the natives, who are Pagans and Mahometans, are reported to be the most arrant cheats in the world.

Trangano is situated next to Pahan, and is a fine healthy country. Its hills produce a plenty of rich fruits, such as oranges, lemons, limes, darians, mangoes, &c. and the vallies teem with sugarcanes and corn. Gold and pepper are likewise produced here, and are principally exported by the Chinese resident in this country.

The prince's palace stands on the banks of a fine river near the ocean; and the Chinese carry on a considerable trade with the adjacent countries.

THIS country, which is mountainous and woody, is famous for its produce of tin, there being more found here than in any other part of India. Pera, its capital, lies at the bottom of a bay about 150 miles north-west of Malacca. There are some hideous desarts in this country, abounding with numbers of wild elephants, tigers, &c.

The people are mere barbarians, and of a most treacherous disposition.

Queda (the capital of a small territory of the same name) is a sea-port town, distant from Patana 140 miles. When a foreign merchant comes here, the king pays him a visit in person, not to compliment him on his arrival, but to receive presents from him. The presents, however, are not made till the visit is repaid; and then the king honours the merchant with a seat near his royal person. His majesty at the same time chews betel, and putting it out of his mouth on a small golden plate, the merchant takes it with great respect, and puts it into his own mouth. The people are Mahometans and Pagans. The chief produce of the place is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and damer.

C H A P. XVIII.

E M P I R E O F S I A M.

SECTION I.

Name, Situation, Extent, Rivers, Divisions, Subdivisions, &c.

THE Portugueze, and from them the rest of the Europeans, call this country Siam; but, by the natives, it is stiled Tai, or Freeman; though they have long been deprived of their liberty.

Siam, which is surrounded by mountains, is bounded on the east by Cambodia and Cochin-China, on the west by the sea, on the north by Pegu and Laos, and on the south by Malacca and the bay of Siam.

Siam Proper (by some called Upper Siam, to distinguish it from the Lower, and which contains seven provinces, viz. Profeloue, Sangueloue, Lacontai, Campengpet, Coconrepina, Pechekonne, and Pitchia) is situated in about the 11th degree of north latitude, and is supposed to be above 550 miles long, and 250 broad, though in some parts it is not more than about 50 miles in breadth.

The Menam, or, *Mother of Waters*, which is the chief river, discharges itself into the gulph of Siam. The source of this river is unknown to most of the inhabitants, or they misrepresent it, in order to magnify its origin. Another great river is called the Mecon; this passes through Laos and Cambodia, and falls into the Indian ocean. A third river, named the Tenaferin, falls into the bay of Bengal, forming the Isle of Merguy, which has a most excellent harbour.

This country, surrounded with mountains, and having few hills, is one wide extended plain, with a great river branching and running through it from north to south. These mountains form two huge chains, one on the west, and the other on the east side, diminishing gradually as they reach southward. They yield diamonds, sapphires, and agates.

The seven provinces of Siam Proper, or Upper Siam, have their names from their principal cities, which are situated near the sea-coast, or on some of the rivers.

The winter here is dry, and the summer wet. Were it not that the sun draws clouds and rain, and the wind

blows from one pole when the sun is declined towards the other, the torrid zone would doubtless be uninhabited. Thus in Siam that great luminary being to the south of the line during winter, the north winds blow continually and cool the air. On the contrary, in the summer, while it is to the north of the line, and vertical to the Siamese, the south winds reign in their turn, and thus either cause incessant rains, or at least dispose the weather to be rainy. It is these winds which the Portugueze call moncaos, and other nations monsoons; and hence it is that vessels have such difficulty to approach or depart from the bar of Siam. Thus the bleak winds of the frigid zones temper the excessive heat of the torrid, and the warm breezes of the torrid flow through and give genial warmth to the temperate, till they reach the frigid, and in some measure qualify that extreme cold which, in those inhospitable regions, benumb nature.

The principal places in Siam Proper are the following, viz.

Chantebon or Liam, which is situated near the gulph of Siam, at the mouth of a river to which it gives name. It is about a day's journey from the sea, and has some considerable inland trade.

Bankasoy is situated on a river near the bar of Siam. The king himself is the sole merchant belonging to this place, for all the elephants teeth, sapan, and aquila wood, is remitted to him. They make here the exquisite sauce called ballichang, on which the epicures of Siam regale; for many of the Siamese fall martyrs to a luxurious appetite. The bellichang is a composition of cod, dried shrimps, pepper, salt, sea-weed, &c. pounded together, and beaten to the consistency of a paste.

In the above-mentioned river are two small islands belonging to the Dutch.

Bancock, situated about 50 miles south of Siam, is remarkable for its large gardens, some of which extend three or four leagues in length, and are filled with trees that produce the most delicious fruits. The river Menan runs from hence to Siam, and its banks are adorned with many pleasant villages, the houses of which are

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made of bamboos, and erected upon stakes, on account of the inundations of the river, which would otherwise sweep them away.

The king of Siam passes several months of the year at Louvo, for the sake of having more freedom than in the metropolis, where he is obliged to be shut up, that his subjects may not lose that profound respect which they entertain for him, by seeing him too often; for solicitude and indolence are the chief characteristics of his dignity.

Upon a couch of down in these abodes,
Supine, with folded arms, he thoughtless nods;
No passions interrupt his easy reign;
No problems puzzle his lethargic brain;
But dull oblivion guards his peaceful bed,
And lazy fogs bedew his gracious head:
Thus at full length such pamp'ring monarchs lay,
Basking in ease, and slumb'ring life away.

There is a communication between Louvo and Siam by means of a large canal, on each side of which are extensive plains abounding with rice.

The king's palace at Louvo is a brick building, but exceeding capacious, and surrounded by fine gardens. The roof is covered with yellow tiles, which, when the sun shines upon them, appear like gold. The town itself is populous, large, and pleasant, and stands about the distance of 14 leagues from Siam.

Probat stands on a branch of the river Menan, about 65 miles north-east of Louvo. The king of Siam annually repairs hither in grand procession, to worship a mark in the rock, which is pretended to be the print of the foot of their idol Sommona-Codom.

Pourcelano, 320 miles from Siam, was formerly a considerable city, defended by fourteen bastions, but has run to decay.

Six miles to the north of the last mentioned place is Menang-tan, celebrated on account of the pilgrimages made to it by many devotees of Siam, Pegu, Laos, &c. who repair hither to pay their respects to one of the above-mentioned idol, Sommona-Codom's teeth, which is here preserved with great care.

Tennasserim, about 200 miles from Siam, is a place of considerable trade, situated on a river, to which it gives name.

Cui is a town near the former, from whence the king of Siam receives great quantities of tin and elephants teeth.

Margui, about 140 miles south-west from Siam, is situated in an island near Tennasserim, and deemed the best port in India.

Ligor, the metropolis of a country of the same name, was formerly an independant state of itself, but a few centuries ago was conquered by the Siamese.

On the western coast there is an island called Jonfalem, which was formerly a kingdom, but at present is of no importance.

Martaban, or Martavan, in the bay of Bengal, was once a kingdom, but is now only a Siamese province. It produces corn, oranges, lemons, figs, pears, chesnuts, medicinal plants, oil of jessamin, gold, steel, iron, lead, copper, rubies, lacque, bonzoin, &c.

On the western coast of Siam are three clusters of islands, viz,

1. The Nicobar Islands, which are situated about 90 leagues from the continent, and 120 north-west from Sumatra. The middle cluster are all well inhabited except one, and the land in general is very fertile. They are called Sombrero. But the northern cluster, named Carnicubars, are not so populous. The inhabitants, who are of a tawny complexion, paint their faces with various colours, and the dress of the priests is singularly whimsical: their cloaths fit them so close, that they seem to be sewed up in them. They wear horns on their heads turning backwards, which, as well as their faces, are painted green, yellow, and black.

About eight miles to the south of Sambrero are two well inhabited and fertile islands, called Ning and Gowry; the inhabitants of which will sell a hog for three feet of iron hoop, and a pig for one foot. They speak a broken kind of Portuguese, and are so fond of tobacco, that they will give a fowl for a leaf of it.

The southern cluster of the Nicobars are very mountainous, and the people much more savage than those of the middle and northern clusters.

The inhabitants of these islands worship the moon, and venerate certain grottos in the rocks as temples. The men scrupulously confine themselves to one woman; and murder and theft are seldom heard of among them.

Nicobar, properly so called, which is the principal of these islands, and gives name to the rest, is near 100 miles north of Sumatra, about 10 leagues in length, and 4 in breadth; is watered by many rivulets, and is very fertile. The inhabitants are robust, well made, and in their apparel resemble the people of the neighbouring continent. They employ themselves principally in fishing, and are some of the most expert swimmers in the universe. The English ships bound to Sumatra usually touch at this island.

2. The Andaman Islands lie in 13 deg. north lat, about 100 leagues north of Sumatra: they are well inhabited by a bold savage people.

3. The Cocoa Islands, 35 leagues west south-west of cape Negrais, produce a great abundance of cocoa-trees, but are uninhabited.

SECTION II.

Soil. Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal Productions. Agriculture.

SIAM may be said to consist of cultivated and uncultivated land. There is scarce a flint to be found in the whole country. The land seems to be formed by the mud descending from the mountains; to which mud, and the overflowings of the river, the soil owes its fertility; for in the higher places, and parts not reached by the inundation, all is dried and burnt up with the sun soon after the rains are over.

This country had once the reputation of being very rich in mines; and, indeed, this appears from the great number of statues and other cast works that are here, many of which are of gold. M. Vincent, a French physician, discovered a mine of very good steel, and another of crystal; also a mine of antimony, and another of emery; exclusive of a quarry of white marble, and a rich gold mine. The latter mine, however, he concealed from the natives. They have plenty of tin, which, however, is rendered hard, as well as white, by being mixed with kedmia, a mineral reduced easily to powder; and it is this white tin which is called tutenage. M. Vincent, during his stay at Siam, taught the inhabitants the art of separating and purifying metals.

There is a mountain near the city of Louvo which produces loadstones; and there is another near Jonfalem, on the Malacca coast; but these minerals, it is said, soon lose their virtue.

Those trees in Siam are the most profitable which produce cotton, oil, and varnish. Indeed the bamboo may be ranked with them, it growing to a prodigious size, and being of the utmost utility.

In the forests is produced timber for ship-building, house-building, &c. Here is a wood that will not cleave, and is called woodmory by the Europeans. Cinnamon-trees are natives of Siam, but not so good as those of Ceylon.

The iron wood which grows here furnishes anchors. There is likewise a wood as light as fir, and of the same colour, but more fit for carving, as it always stands the chissel.

The chief grain used here is rice; but wheat is sometimes sown upon the land that the inundation does not extend

extend to. This is watered by small channels cut thro' the fields.

The natives rear pulse and roots in their gardens; and they have radishes, garlic, and potatoes; but no parsnips, carrots, onions, or turnips; nor have they any of the kind of herbs that we make use of in Europe.

Of flowers here are tuberoses, jessamins, gilly-flowers, tricolets, amaranthuses, &c. but these have not the fragrance of the European flowers. Oranges, lemons, citrons, and pomegranates, grow here, but no other fruit known in Europe. Here are mangostans, tamarinds, bananas, ananas, mangos, durians, &c.

The animals here are tygers, elephants, horses, oxen, buffalos, sheep, and goats. There are some hares, but no rabbits. As to deer, there is a great plenty of them.

The birds are peacocks, doves, pigeons, partridges, snipes, parrots, sparrows, and various others. A bird, called the Noktho, is a very remarkable one: it is larger than an ostrich, and has a bill near three feet in length.

The insects are white ants, marin-gowins or gnats, millepedes or palmer-worms, &c.

In tilling their land the Siamese employ both oxen and buffalos. These they guide by a cord run through the gristle of the noses of the animals, with a knot on each side, that it may not slip: it also passes through a hole or ring at the head of the machine used for plowing. Nothing can be more simple than this plough: it consists of three pieces of wood; one is a long beam, which serves for the draught-tree or pole; another is crooked, serving for the handle; the third is a strong short piece fastened underneath at the end of the handle; and it is this which bears the share. The whole is fixed together by leathern thongs.

SECTION III.

Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Marriages, Funeral Ceremonies, &c. of the Natives.

THE natives of this country are of small stature, and well proportioned: their complexions are tawny, and both sexes have broad faces: their eyes are small, their mouths large, their lips thick, their noses short, and their jaws hollow. Their hair is black, thick, and lank: each sex has it cut so short as to reach only to the top of their ears, which are particularly large. Both men and women dye their teeth black. The great men are said to paint their legs blue, but the ladies never use any paint at all.

The dress of people of distinction is a piece of callico or silk, about two ells and a half long, which reaches to their knees. Great officers and placemen wear, besides, a muslin shirt, as a sort of vest. The king wears a vest of brocaded sattin under his shirt, with sleeves reaching to his wrists.

From the Mahometans arose the use of popushes or slippers, a kind of pointed shoe, without either quarter or heel, which they leave at the doors of the houses they enter, to avoid soiling the rooms. They approve of hats for travelling; though very few cover their heads from the sun's heat, except on rivers, where the refraction may be too violent.

The natives of Siam, in general, are remarkably clean and neat: they bathe three or four times a day, and perfume themselves. They wash their hair with water and sweet oil, and keep their black dyed teeth as clean as possible. They apply a pomatum to their lips to render them pale; for pale lips and black teeth are the marks of delicacy and beauty.

Those of the women as do not choose to bathe have water poured upon them. They never go quite naked into a river, the idea of infamy in the sex being affixed to nakedness: nor can a greater affront be offered to a Siamese lady, than the introducing any obscene conversation.

The Siamese have very clear ideas, and are extremely smart in conversation. They are by nature kind and complaisant, though rather haughty when too much submission is shewn them. They abhor both drunkenness and adultery, and a sincere affection subsists between men and their wives, who bring up their offspring to be as temperate, modest, obliging, and affectionate as themselves. They are partial to the customs of their ancestors, and little admire the curiosities of foreign countries. They are timorous, careless, indolent, and have an aversion to the spilling of human blood.

Rice and fish are their usual food. The sea yields them very excellent fish of all kinds. They have fine lobsters, delicate little turtles, and small oysters, besides a variety of fish that the Europeans are unacquainted with. Here, too, are very fine river fish, particularly eels. They, however, prefer dry salt fish, even though it stinks; and they eat mice, rats, locusts, and lizards.

They are so moderate, that a pound of rice, which costs about a farthing, with a little salt fish of no greater value, will serve a Siamese the whole day. Their sauce is only a little water, mixed with spices or herbs. They have a favourite dish called ba-la-chaun, made of small fish reduced to a mash. They drink arrack, which is very cheap, or else common water.

When they receive company they drink tea, but do not put sugar into their cups as we do: they put a bit of sugar-candy into their mouths, and sip the tea.

Great subordination is observed here. Servants and slaves, when in the presence of their superiors, must never stand, but kneel, or sit on their heels, with their heads inclined a little, and their hands raised to their foreheads. When inferior people pass their superiors in the street, they bow the body, join their hands, and raise them to their heads. In visits, an inferior prostrates himself, and never speaks till spoken to by the person to whom he makes the visit; for the person of superior rank must always speak first. The visited offers his place to the visitant, and presents him with fruit, betel, &c.

The right hand is looked upon as more honourable than the left; and that part of a room opposite the door is always offered to a visitor. If there be much company, they are all seated according to their respective ranks in life.

Notwithstanding their general ceremonies, the Siamese are, in some instances, rather indecent; for they belch without restraint, and wipe off the sweat from their faces with their fingers.

The children have much docility, and natural sweetness of disposition. They are instructed to express great modesty in every action, and all possible submission to their superiors. Parents are the more careful in the education of their children, as they are accountable for their offences.

Their method of travelling is riding on the buffalo, the ox, and the elephant. Every person has an unlimited privilege to hunt and take a wild elephant, but he must not kill him. The female is employed in common uses, and the male is trained for war.

Persons of rank also ride in chairs or sedans, which are square, with flat seats placed on biers, and are carried on mens shoulders. To some there are eight men, to others four. The Europeans have the privilege of riding in palanquins, or canopied couches, carried on mens shoulders. Umbrellas are not allowed but to such natives as have the king's royal sanction for them.

Daughters are here disposed of in marriage at a very early age. If the parents of the maiden approve of her lover, they consult an astrologer, after the match has been proposed by a woman advanced in years. The fortune-teller is to inform them whether the match will be happy or not; that is, in fact, he is to know whether the man be opulent or not; for such is the despotism of the government, that individuals are obliged to hide their wealth. If the answer of the astrologer be favourable,

favourable, the lover makes three formal visits to his mistress. On the third visit the relations of the parties meet, when the young lady's portion is paid, and the marriage is looked upon as fully completed, without further ceremony, for the present. However, a few days afterwards the new-married couple are sprinkled with water appropriated for that purpose, and prayers are offered to heaven for their felicity. The wedding is then celebrated with feasting, dancing, and music, at the house of the bride's father.

Although men have the liberty of marrying several wives, very few, except the higher classes, marry more than one; and this is done rather for grandeur and state, than from motives of either convenience or regard.

Amongst the ordinary class, women work here for their husbands, and maintain them during the whole time they are in the service of the prince, which is about six months in the year. They till the land, buy and sell goods, and do other necessary business.

Divorce is here tolerated, on condition that the husband restores to his wife the portion she brought him. In this case the children are divided equally between the disuniting parties, who are at liberty to marry again as soon as they please.

Their dead here are buried in lacquered coffins: these they place upon a table till every necessary preparation is made for the funeral. In the mean time they light up tapers, and burn perfumes. The talapoins, or priests, assemble, and sing stanzas, for which they are well requited by the relations of the deceased. The corpse, in proper time, is taken into the fields to be burnt. The pile is made near some temple, in a square spot of ground fenced with bamboo. The body is decorated with gilt and stained paper, representatives of birds, flowers, fruits, &c. which are for the use of the deceased in the other world, where such emblems are supposed to be animated and realized.

Various instruments of solemn music attend the procession of the corpse to the funeral pile, and the mourners are all dressed in white.

When they arrive at the place of interment, the body is taken out of the coffin, and laid on the pile; then the priests sing, and a fire-work is soon played off. About noon (for it is in the morning the dead are thus carried) the pile is set fire to, and the ashes of the deceased are afterwards deposited in some part of the temple.

The poorer sort of people do not burn the bodies of their deceased relations, but either privately inter them, or else expose them on a scaffold in the open field, where they are devoured by birds of prey.

The talapoins or priests teach the doctrine of transmigration, and inculcate many tenets equally absurd and paradoxical. They allow foreigners, however, the practice of all religions.

The principles of the Siamese morals are reduced to five negative precepts.

The first precept, "kill nothing," is extended to vegetables and seeds, as well as animals; because they believe the seed contains the plant, or is only the plant itself under a cover. The person, therefore, who keeps the precept inviolate, can live solely upon fruit, which they consider only as part of a thing that has life, and which thing does not suffer by having its fruit plucked from it: but in eating the fruit, the kernel must not be devoured, as being a seed. The precept even forbids the destruction of any thing in nature; they believe, that to break a branch of a tree, is like breaking the arm of an innocent man, and offends the soul of the tree; but when once the soul has been dislodged from any body, they think there is no crime in feeding upon the latter. They have methods of evading many of the rules ordained by their religion.

The second precept, "steal nothing," is most strictly and religiously observed; as is the third generally, "commit no impurity." The fourth, "lie not, nor slander," is enforced with great warmth and zeal by the talapoins, and observed, as much as the frailty of the human heart will admit, by their disciples. The

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fifth and last precept, "drink no intoxicating liquors," prohibits not only the drinking strong liquors to excess, but even the drinking them at all.

SECTION IV.

Account of the Talapoins and Talapoineses.

THERE are two classes of the talapoins, those of the woods, and those of the towns; but as any person who is learned may become a talapoin, he who inclines to enter into the brotherhood first applies properly for admission, and then assumes their habit, which is a garment of various colours.

A talapoin is never suffered to intermeddle in any but religious affairs; nor must he, if avaritiously inclined, in the least shew it: he must never adorn his apparel, or betray any particular fondness for women.

The spirit of the institution of his order is to lead a life of devotion and penitence for the sins of other people. They subsist entirely upon alms, and are constrained, so long as they continue to follow their profession, to live single, on pain of being burnt.

These fathers educate children, and at every new and full moon expound the principles of their religion in the temples. When the rivers swell, they preach constantly every day, both morning and afternoon, till the inundation subsides. They relieve each other, and sit cross-legged, in a high state-chair; and when each concludes his sermon, the people give him alms: so that those who are industrious in preaching soon become rich.

After harvest, the talapoins of the towns go every night, for three weeks successively, to watch in the fields, under little huts, and in the day return and sleep in their cells, near the temples. In the center of their temporary habitations stands the hut of a superior.

At dawn of day the talapoins rise and wash themselves. They then attend their superior to the temple, and spend two hours in prayer and singing hymns, which are engraved in the Bali tongue upon long and broad leaves. Both the talapoins and the people prostrate themselves three times upon entering as well as leaving the temple. The object of their homage is a great idol in the building. When service is over the priests go and beg alms in the street. Their begging is of a peculiar nature: they have an iron bowl in a piece of linen, which they throw across their shoulders by means of a cord, and then fix themselves at some door, without opening their lips. The people, however, generally give them something, and, with whatever they get, they repair to the temple, to make an offering of it to the idol. After breakfast they apply themselves to study, and the instruction of their pupils. In the afternoon they sleep; and towards night, after spending two hours in prayer and singing, they refresh themselves with some fruit, and retire to their natural rest.

The superior is called Chaw-Vat, or a lord of the convent. The highest, however, in office, is the San-krat, who ordains the talapoins, as our bishops do their priests.

The talapoins have great privileges granted them. Among others they are exempt from services under the king, who therefore, lest they become too numerous, causes them to be examined at particular times, as to their knowledge of the Bali language, and of the holy writings. If they are not deemed sufficiently learned, he reduces them to a secular state.

The talapoineses are nuns who live with the talapoins in the same convents, which convents are a number of single houses standing upon bamboo pillars, at a small distance from each other.

Though the talapoineses reside with the men in the same convents, yet, as they are never admitted till they are old, there is no apprehension of a criminal connexion.

Every person who goes to a convent goes there entirely by choice, and has liberty to leave it whenever he or she pleases.

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SECTION V.

The Laws of Siam, Manner of Trial, and Nature of Punishment.

THE governor of every province of Siam is vested with the sole command, both in civil and military concerns. The laws enjoin an unlimited obedience from children to their parents, and subject the former entirely to the jurisdiction of the latter.

Some of their punishments are equitable and rational, others ridiculous and barbarous. That for robbery is the being obliged to pay double the value of the effects stolen, or the suffering corporal punishment, as the delinquent may perhaps have no effects to compensate.

He who wrongfully keeps possession of another man's estate is considered in the light of a thief or robber; so that when ejected by law, he is not only obliged to give up the inheritance to its right owner, but also to pay, exclusively, the full value of such estate; half of which goes to the party injured, and the other half to the judge who tries the cause.

Those convicted of rebellion are ripped up alive. Those of treason or murder are trampled to death by elephants. If a great man of the court be detected in embezzling any of the royal treasure, they pour melted lead or melted metal down his throat. Omissions in a general execution of orders are punished by cutting the head with a sword, called pricking the head, as if to punish the memory. The bastinado is sometimes exercised in a very rigorous manner. Almost the smallest appearance of guilt confirms the crime; and to be accused is nearly enough to render a man culpable. When a person, however, designs to prosecute another, he is obliged to draw up a petition, in which he states his complaint, and presents it to the Nai, or chief, who conveys it to the governor of the province in which the offence was committed. When every thing is prepared for trial, the parties have summonses sent them to make their personal appearance in court, where, merely by way of form, they are advised to compromise matters. At length, however, the governor fixes upon a day for all parties to attend again, and on this day, if sufficient testimonies are not produced as to matter of fact, and admissible defences made, both plaintiff and defendant are constrained to walk upon red-hot coals, and he who escapes unhurt is looked upon to be innocent. In some cases the parties are obliged to put their hands into boiling oil: and in both these ordeal trials, by some dexterous management, one or the other of the parties is said to remain unhurt.

A French writer relates, that a Frenchman, from whom a Siamese had stolen some tin, not having sufficient proof to convict him, was advised to put his hand into a pot of boiling oil, with this assurance, that if he was just in his accusation, the oil could not possibly hurt him. The Frenchman agreed to the trial, but almost consumed his hand, whilst the Siamese, who had readily submitted to the same proof, drew his hand out of the oil unhurt.

There is also a proof in this country, by placing the parties under water, and he who can remain there longest is supposed to be innocent. Sometimes emetic pills are administered, and he who can keep them on his stomach without vomiting is looked upon as guiltless. "These trials (says an author) are made in the presence of the king and magistrates; and it sometimes happens that the former causes both plaintiff and defendant to be thrown to tygers, and if either of the persons has the good fortune to escape, he is deemed innocent."

Appeals are frequently made from one province to another; and the president of the tribunal in the city of Siam can reverse a judgement given in any of them, except the province appeals to the king: so that where the parties are opulent, a suit is sometimes very tedious and expensive: and when the poorer sort of people have formidable adversaries to cope with, their innocence is but a slender shield to them. Suits ought always to end in three days, but some last as many years.

Having spoken of the punishment inflicted for treason, we shall add a quotation from an author who treats of the trial of Captain Hamilton for that offence at Siam in the year 1719.

"In 1719, Captain Hamilton being at Siam, and conversing with Oya Sennerat, a man in power, about some alteration in the English treaty of commerce, happened to say, that 'the king had been imposed on.' Now it seems that the merely saying that the king of Siam can in any thing be deceived is treason. The captain was therefore in a few days taken into custody, and brought to a court of justice, where Oya Sennerat appeared against him, and brought as evidence one Collison, who affirmed he had heard the captain utter the words in the Indostan language: but Collison being asked by the judge if he understood that language, and the former acknowledging he did not, the captain was acquitted. Had he been convicted, he would have been immediately executed on the spot, the elephants being ready."

Crimes of an inferior nature are usually punished in a very equitable manner: for lying, the mouth is sewed up. A cheat is obliged to walk about several days with a small wooden pillory about his neck: and one who is guilty of assaulting another with a malicious intent, is sentenced to be quickset, that is, set in the ground up to the shoulders, and his head severely buffeted about. In these rational punishments strict equity seems to deal her judgments with impartiality.

In Siam, as well as other places, favour may be bought. Equity is frequently sacrificed to a bribe, and the smiles of the law are disposed of to the best bidder.

Laws bear the name, but money has the power:
The cause is bad whene'er the client's poor.
Those strict-liv'd men, that seem above our world,
Are oft too modest to resist our gold.
So judgement, like our other wares, is sold;
And the grave knight that nods upon the laws,
Wak'd by a fee—Hems! and approves the cause."

One excellent custom, however, prevails here, which is, that none are permitted to upbraid a delinquent with his offence, after he has suffered the sentence of the law. Nay, the crime is so little thought of after the punishment has been inflicted, that the person is caressed as much as ever; and an offender who is one day in the utmost disgrace, may the next be advanced to the highest dignity.

SECTION VI.

Languages, and Skill in the Sciences.

IN this country there are two languages spoken, the Siamese and the Bali. The former consists chiefly of monosyllables, that have neither conjugation or declension. The latter is the learned language.

Arithmetic is much studied here. In it they use ten figures, as we do, and are very ready in casting up accounts.

Oratory is not much cultivated; nor have they the art of printing among them: books are engraved with an iron pencil.

Of philosophy they have very slender conceptions; and as to the laws of their country, these they do not study, unless placed in some office where a knowledge of them is essentially requisite.

They know nothing of astronomy, but think that eclipses are occasioned by a mighty dragon ready to destroy both the sun and moon, and therefore make a great noise with brass pans, &c. to frighten away the monster. They believe the earth to be square, on the extremities of which the arch of the firmament rests.

Their calendar has been regulated twice by able European astronomers, who have taken two remarkable epochs; the first refers to the year 545 before Christ; the second to the year 638 after Christ. Their year they divide

divide into three seasons, beginning it at the first moon of November or December. They have no clocks, but judge of the time by the sun. They have four watches for the night: and in a court of the royal palace there is an hollow vessel with a small hole therein; and this, set upon water, gradually lets it in, till it sinks just as the hour expires; and then particular persons about the palace strike loudly upon copper basons, to proclaim the expiration of the hour.

No affairs of consequence are ever undertaken without a previous consultation with some prophetic and learned sage in the sublime science of astronomy.

There are some physicians among them; but these must act with great caution; for if they prescribe for the king or royal family, and do not give relief, they are severely cudged. They cure most diseases by sudorifics. Their whole practice of physic consists in using certain receipts handed down from their ancestors. They sometimes prescribe purgatives, but very seldom emetics. The chief diseases are fluxes and dysenteries; and the small pox often makes great havock amongst them. When a patient is past all cure, they say he is enchanted.

An author, speaking of these people, says, "They know nothing of chemistry, though they passionately affect it; and some boast of profound secrets. A king of Siam once spent a prodigious sum in search of the philosopher's stone."

Their musical instruments are a kind of violin, with three strings, and a shrill hautboy; also little drums and copper basons; but neither play nor sing by any kind of notes. They have also a trumpet, that makes a very harsh noise.

On the king's going out, and the whole royal band attending him, the sounds have an extraordinary effect upon an European ear.

SECTION VII.

Power, Palace, Guards, Elephants, and Female Attendants of the King. His annual Processions, Army, Navy, and Revenues.

HAUGHTINESS and despotism are the distinguishing characteristics of the king of Siam. He is almost adored by his subjects. Even his ministers, when in council, never must presume to speak to him but upon their knees. His palace is a most splendid edifice, situated on an eminence, and may be compared to a city, so extensive is it, and so grand are its several pyramids, &c. This superb pile, which stands on the north side of the city of Siam, and is built with brick, is surrounded by three enclosures, and spacious courts between each wall. The apartments of the king and queen are in the innermost court, which includes several elegant gardens. The people always prostrate themselves on entering or quitting this inner court.

His majesty has also two bodies of horse-guards, who are natives of Laos and Meen; and a third, composed partly of the natives of Indostan and Chinese Tartary. These horse-guards always attend his majesty when he goes abroad: but it must be observed, they are never suffered to be within the palace gates.

The stables of the best elephants and horses are in the first enclosure of the royal palace: the former are named by the king, and attended with great care: that which has the most honourable name is treated with the greater respect. They have always their rich trappings on when taken out of the stables; and the people have an opinion, that these sagacious animals possess the souls that formerly lived in the bodies of great and famous men. The king will never ride upon a white elephant, from a notion that it is animated with the soul of some prince. His majesty, however, is stiled king of the white elephant; a title, however, which the king of Pegu disputes with him.

Ladies only are allowed to attend his Siamese majesty in his bedchamber; they dress and undress him, ex-

cept indeed putting on his night cap, which he does himself, as nobody must touch his head. His provisions are dressed by females also, who wait on him at table, after some little ceremony between them and the eunuchs, with regard to bringing in the dishes.

The eldest son of the queen does not always succeed to the crown, but generally the eldest son of the king by the first concubine that brings him a child. Daughters never inherit the throne.

The king, when he goes abroad, either rides upon an elephant most richly caparisoned, or is carried in a grand chair. Once a year he passes through the city, with a numerous train of elephants, and bands of music. The populace, during the procession, fall prostrate at the approach of his majesty, and rise, after he has passed them, to gaze at him.

His majesty also shews himself once a year on the river in a grand balon, covered with a rich canopy; several thousand other balons are seen upon the water at the same time, forming a most elegant sight. He is rowed to a temple on the opposite shore, where the priests pray for him, and present him with a couple of yards of cotton cloth, spun and woven on that day. At sun-set he leaves the temple, and is rowed back to the palace.

An author, speaking of the king of Siam's water procession, says, "his reason for honouring the river and his people at this time is to forbid the water rising above such an height, or to continue increasing above such a number of days: however, it often disobeys his majesty's commands."

No officer or other person must ever presume to approach the king in his royal apartment, without a previous order given him: this is a law made for the prince's safety.

Nor must the great officers visit each other privately; the visit must be on some public occasion; and they must always speak loud, so as to be heard; for if they speak in a low tone of voice, it is suspected they are conspiring against the state.

Though it is high treason to say the king can be deceived, yet he is often and easily deceived; for all informers are dishonest, and the Indian princes love to be flattered; the courtiers conceal their real sentiments from their prince, and the prince conceals his own from them: they must never presume to point out any error the sovereign has committed, or be so bold as to tell him that it is impossible to execute what he commands; they therefore implicitly obey him, and if they miscarry, excuse the miscarriage afterwards in the gentlest terms.

The common people live in much greater security and happiness than the nobility and officers of the crown; for honours here never lead to happiness, but to anxiety, dread, and a perpetual disturbance of mind. "The common people, says a respectable author, enjoy pleasures which their superiors are strangers to; nor indeed are they so liable to be oppressed as the subjects of some other countries, free access to the throne being always had when complaints are to be made."

The Siamese order of encampment and battle is thus: the army arranges itself in three lines, and each line is composed of three great square battalions, the king being in the center one. The nine battalions thus formed, each has sixteen male elephants in the rear, accompanied by two females, beside others of those animals for carrying baggage, &c. The Siamese rely much on their elephants, who, when they are wounded, often turn back on their masters, and throw the whole army into disorder.

The engagement begins with a discharge of artillery, with which they have been supplied by the Portuguese, and then they exercise their arrows, but never come to a close engagement.

An author says, "the armies of Siam, and indeed all the neighbouring countries who hold the metempsychosis or transmigration of souls, busy themselves only in making slaves; and the usual way among them of waging

waging war, is to invade each other's dominions in different parts at the same time, and to carry off whole villages into captivity."

The king of Siam's navy consists of about half a dozen capital ships, the crews of which are foreigners; he has, however, exclusive of these, about sixty galleys of war; but they are small, with only one man to an oar, who is obliged to row standing, the oar being so short, for lightness sake, that if not held perpendicularly, it would not touch the water. The king, in his naval expeditions, only makes reprisals on such of his neighbours as injure him in his commerce. His royal balons, or pleasure barges, consist of about an hundred and fifty, and are very magnificent.

The revenues of the king arise from cultivated lands, exports and imports, vessels, gardens, fruits, fines, confiscations, &c. &c. His treasury is immensely rich.

SECTION VIII.

The Nobility, great officers of State, and Ambassadors.

NEITHER dignity of birth, nor extent of possessions, but the prince's favour alone, constitute nobility in this country. He sometimes ennobles people of the very meanest extraction, provided they have any particular services to recommend them. To these he gives, as a mark of distinction, either a golden or silver bouffette to hold their betel.

The king of Siam has many lords, who are peculiarly attached to his royal person: these always live within the palace. Others there are who are employed without, to govern affairs, and preserve good order among the people. The rank of each nobleman is distinguished, when he appears abroad, by the richness of his sword, as well as other marks of honour. The ladies are also distinguished in proportion to their respective ranks.

The officers of state residing in the capital must daily attend in some part of the palace, except they have leave of absence, on pain of being severely whipped with split rattans, which cut deep in the flesh.

In Siam ambassadors are considered in a very inferior light, being deemed only the special messengers of the princes whom they represent. Those who come from the neighbouring sovereigns that are dependant on, or connected with, the emperor of Siam, are obliged to prostrate themselves before him, and advance towards him creeping on their hands and knees. Ambassadors from Asiatic monarchs are treated with some trifling degree of greater respect. But the European ambassadors are exempted from many of the ceremonials which the others are obliged to observe. They must not, however, attempt to open their lips till the emperor has first spoken; and when they do speak, to be very brief, a long harangue being deemed an egregious insult.

SECTION IX.

Description of the City of Siam.

SIAM, the metropolis of the Siamese empire, is in 14 deg. north lat. and 101 deg. 5 min. long. its circumference is 10 miles; and many canals, whose sources are in the river Menan, pass through it; as they are navigable, the conveniency to the inhabitants is very great. The walls are thick and high, built of stone and bricks, of both which materials some of the bridges are erected, though most are built of wood. The only public structures worth notice are the temples, which are so gilded on the outside, that the effulgence of the sun-beams reflected from them dazzle the eyes of the beholders. One of the latter, which is a square building, are 100 idols, placed in niches four feet from the ground. They are as big as life, sit cross legged, and are all gilt. The figures of dreadful dragons are placed at the gates of the temples. All the

houses are built of timber or cane, except in one street, which contains 200 brick dwellings of only one story. The markets here are well stocked with cattle wild and tame, rice, fruits, pulse, roots, &c. The trade consists of the admirable gems of Pegu, silver bullion, manufactured iron, broad stammel cloth, looking-glasses, &c. China wares are cheaper than at Bantam. The river will contain vessels of 400 tons burthen, and divides the city into eight parts.

The walls and floors of the houses are of cane materials, covered with mats; the windows are holes in the sides, which are always open; the stair cases are ladders; the chimnies are apertures in the roof; and their fire place is only a basket of earth in the middle of the room. The cattle are kept in the houses for fear of inundations. The principal pieces of furniture are, a small couch covered with a mat, which serves for a seat by day, and a bed by night; but when they retire to rest, a mattress stuffed with cotton is added in lieu of a bed; many have likewise a sheet, a quilt, and pillow; the rest of the furniture consists of lacquered tables, cabinets with drawers, copper and earthen vessels, china ware, &c. Besides which, every family has a chest of working tools.

The sovereign claims six months labour from all his male subjects; if he is at war, they are inrolled as soldiers; but if it is a time of peace, they are employed in agriculture, mining, building, fishing, rowing, &c. They are divided into bands, each of which is under the direction of a proper officer, who frequently supplies their necessities by lending them money, paying their creditors, &c. but this often turns out to his own advantage, as all who are insolvent become his slaves. Those who row the emperor's balons, barges, and gondolas, are branded in the wrists to be peculiarly distinguished; they are better fed than such as belong to the other bands; but at the same time they are harder worked, and oftner corrected.

Thus all the advantage which from dress they gain,
Is lost in punishment, and sunk in pain;
While the still greater slav'ry renders crude
The finest sauces to the daintiest food.

SECTION X.

History of Siam.

THE history of Siam cannot be traced with any degree of certainty, previous to the year 1500, nor do the Siamese themselves pretend to be possessed of any antient records.

The Portuguese affirm, that in 1511, when they took the city of Malacca, it was governed by an Arabian prince, named Mahomet, who was totally independent of the Siamese sovereign. From the above æra nothing remarkable happened till 1640, when the Dutch took Malacca, (which they still retain) from the Portuguese.

In 1648 the general of the Siamese troops, being popular among the soldiers, and having the army at his devotion, took occasion to quarrel with his sovereign in order to dethrone him. This he effected, and deprived his master of life, by pounding him to death in a large iron mortar with a wooden pestle. The secretary of state was kept confined three years with the Siamese pillory about his neck, and was never, during that time, permitted to quit his dungeon, but when he was taken out to be severely lashed, in order to make him accuse some of the principal people of having accumulated riches by clandestine means, that the usurper might have some pretext to plunder them. The usurper, however, enjoyed but little satisfaction from reigning; as he lived the martyr of guilt and slave of suspicion, his crimes increased his fears, and his fears multiplied his crimes; for, while his conscience tormented him with the idea of the murders he had done, the dread of being himself murdered prompted him to commit more;



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more, and induced him to fancy that his security could only be founded on the blood of those he suspected.

"The man who rises on his country's ruin,
 "Lives in a crowd of foes, himself the chief;
 "In vain his pow'r, in vain his pomp and pleasures;
 "His guilty thoughts, those tyrants of the soul,
 "Steal in unseen, and stab him in his triumph.
 "Wretched distracting state! when ev'ry object
 "Strikes him with horror, ev'ry thought with fear."

The above revolution was the ruin of the factory which the French had but little time before erected at Bancoek.

The Siamese monarch, in 1717, invaded Cambodia with 50,000 men by land, and 20,000 by sea, but proved unsuccessful in his expedition, which is the most recent circumstance relative to this country, that can be depended on as authentic.

C H A P. XIX.

HINDOSTAN OR INDOSTAN, OR INDIA
PROPER.

SECTION I.

Name, Situation, Boundaries, Divisions, Rivers, Mountains, &c.

HINDOSTAN, or Indostan, the principal, richest, and most fertile part of India, is more famed for its luxuriant, inestimable productions, than any circumstances that have been handed down by ancient and authentic records. Avarice has, however, at different periods, taught innumerable sordid adventurers to study its geography sword in hand, who have not scrupled to wade through blood to glean riches; and the bowels of the inhabitants have been ripped open to come at the precious products of the bowels of the earth. The richness of the country has been the greatest misfortune to the natives; their gold shined, and their diamonds blazed, but to invite robbers to plunder them; and while the heat of the climate, and the delicious fruits of the earth, lulled the effeminate people into the lethargic slumbers of luxury, they became an easy prey to those who were more sordid and bold, and had less conscience than themselves.

Well may the worldly miser pant for these regions, and say,

Waft me! O waft me to that distant shore,
 Where dwells the precious idol I adore!
 Health, danger, friends, religious, moral ties,
 I from the bottom of my soul despise,
 And pant for nothing but the glittering prize.
 Hail happy clime, whose bosom gold contains,
 Whose bowels glow with radiant brilliant veins:
 Thy rivers, wealthy as the flaming mine,
 With golden sand and di'mond pebbles shine.
 To grasp at treasure is alone to live:
 Is there a blessing but what wealth can give?
 Ten ample lacks of dear rupees I'd take,
 And freely part with conscience for their sake.
 What's virtue or humanity to me,
 When captivating precious stones I see?
 To be a Man, and poor, will never do:
 I'll Brute commence, and be a rich one too.

India on this side the Ganges was anciently subject to the Persians; and Alexander the Great pushed his conquests into India, to the extremity of those parts which had been tributary to Darius. Previous to the time of Alexander, some Grecians had traversed India in search of science; and above 2300 years since the celebrated Pilpay there wrote his admirable fables, which have since been translated into most of the known languages in the world.

This extensive country received its name from the river Indus, and is called by the natives Mogulstan, or the empire of the Great Mogul. It lies between the Indus and the Ganges, which fall into the Indian Ocean, at the distance of 400 leagues from each other; and is bounded by Ubec Tartary and Thibet on the

north; by Acham, Ava, and the Bay of Bengal, on the east; by the Indian Ocean on the south; and by the same sea and Persia on the west. It is situated between 66 and 92 degrees of east longitude from London, and between the 7th and 40th degrees of north latitude, being 2042 miles long from north to south, and upwards of 1400 broad in the widest part from east to west.

The Mogul empire is divided into several provinces: though it cannot be said the Mogul is sole and absolute master of them all, as there are a number of rajas, or petty princes, sovereigns independent of him.

The north-east division of India contains the province of Bengal, as well as Jesual, Naugracut, Patna, Necbol, Gor, and Rotas. The north-west division extends to the frontiers of Persia, and contains the provinces of Surat, Jesselmere, Sinda, Tatta, Bucknor, Maltan, Hercan, and Cabul. These are situated on the river Indus. The south-east coast, or coast of Coromandel, contains Orixia, Golconda, the east side of Bisnagar, or the Carnatic Madura, and Tanjore, Afme, Jengapour, Cassimere, Hendowns, Lahor, Agra, Dehli, Gualior, Narvar, Katipore, Chitor, Berar, and Crandish, are situated in the center division. The south-west contains Guzarat, the Decan, and Bisnagar, or the Carnatic.

The tropic of Cancer runs through the center of the empire. The southern part lies within the torrid zone; yet in the very hottest part of the year there are generally rains, which, from about the end of June to November, refresh the earth and cool the air; the showers then, especially in August and September, falling for several days without intermission, attended with thunder and lightning. Even in the fairest weather they have lightning, though without thunder, for several weeks successively; but this lightning never does the smallest detriment: the sky at this season is clear and serene, and the earth refreshed with gentle breezes, which, in the mornings and evenings, are extremely agreeable: the heavens have a most beautiful appearance, and vegetables spring forth with incredible forwardness. The air is perfumed with the choicest fruits, affording an wholesome and refreshing nourishment, while the trees form a shade impenetrable to the rays of the sun.

The monsoons, or periodical winds, blow six months in one direction, and six in the opposite direction. For instance, suppose they blow from the south-west from April to October, they then turn about, and blow from the north-east from October to April. At the shifting or breaking up of the monsoons, there are usually such storms of wind as will not suffer a vessel to ride with any degree of safety.

The Ganges and Indus are the chief rivers of this empire. The former rises from different sources in Thibet, and, after several windings through Caucasus, penetrates into India across the mountains on its frontiers. This river, after having formed, in its course, a great number of large, fertile, and well peopled islands, discharges itself into the sea by several channels, of

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which

which only two are frequented. It runs a winding course of about 3000 miles.

The Indians hold the Ganges in the highest esteem, worship it as a deity, and deem that person happy who terminates his existence upon its margin; and even felicitate that family, an individual of which has been drowned in its stream. Towards the source of this river was once the city of Palibothra; the antiquity of which was so great, that Diodorus Siculus scruples not to say it was built by that Hercules to whom the Greeks ascribed the most surprising actions which had been performed in the world. In the days of Pliny the opulence of Palibothra was celebrated throughout the globe; and it was the general mart for the inhabitants of both sides the river that washed its walls.

The Indus, which runs an equal course with the Ganges, waters the western side of India, flowing from the north-east to the south-west, and falling into the Indian ocean by three channels.

In Hindostan are several rivers, as the Attock, (the Hydaspes of the ancients,) the Jemmima, the Guenga, &c. which are all too insignificant to merit a particular description.

The mountains of this country divide it into two equal parts, running across from north to south, and extending as far as Cape Comorin. Many of the mountains produce diamonds, rubies, amethysts, granates, chrysolites, jasper, agate, &c.

SECTION II.

Climate, Soil, Vegetables, Animals, Insects, &c.

THE seasons of this country seem to be separated by a barrier erected by nature in the mountains; for the countries that are divided by them, tho' under the same latitudes, have a different climate; and while it is summer on one side of these mountains, it is winter on the other: though all that is meant by winter in this country, is that time of the year when the clouds, which the sun attracts from the sea, are violently driven by the winds against the mountains, where they break and dissolve in rain, accompanied with frequent storms; hence the torrents, which rush from the mountains, swell the rivers, and overflow the plains. Hence, too, the vapours which obscure the day, and diffuse a gloom over the country. It is a rule here, that they have the fairest wheather when the sun is at the greatest distance from them, and the worst when it is vertical. The soil of this country is rendered so pliable for its various productions, by the excessive, but nourishing, rains, that it needs little assistance from the hands of the husbandman.

The natives in the southern part of the peninsula live principally upon rice: indeed, scarce any thing else is sown there. In the northern part there is excellent barley and wheat, and they have good peas and beans. Their buffalos, cows, and goats, supply them with milk in plenty, with which they make a great deal of cheese.

The gardens of India, though extremely pleasant, do not produce any great choice of flowers. Here is, however, a variety of fruit-trees; and what flowers there are have a most elegant mixture of colours, tho' few of them have any fragrance. The fruits are mangos, guavas, pomegranates, ananas, pine-apples, coconuts, oranges, lemons, limes, plantains, tamarinds, mulberries, &c. There are, in the north part of the empire, also apples, pears, and other fruits that are produced in Europe. Both fruit and forest-trees in the south part of India are ever-greens; and some of the fruit-trees have green and ripe fruit on them at the same time. Their kitchen-gardens yield water-melons, pot-herbs, potatoes, &c. They have also ginger, saffron, turmeric, sugar, cotton, indigo, opium, the pepper-plant, &c. with spacious plantations of sugar-canes.

The most useful trees in India are the cocoa and cotton-trees. The cocoa yields meat, drink, and oil, as

well as timber for building. Of the fibres of the bark they make their cordage, and with the branches they cover their houses. From the cotton-tree they make their callico, and most of their cloathing. This tree grows to a considerable height. There is also the cotton shrub, of which are made gingham, muslins, &c. The shrub and tree put forth yellow blossoms, succeeded by pods, the skin of which bursting, discovers a fine, soft, white wool.

Here is the indigo tree or shrub, which is about the size of a rose-tree, but has a smooth rind. The leaves, when stripped off at the proper season, are laid together, when a vegetable dew exhales from them. They are then immersed in water, contained in vessels adapted for the purpose. After the water has extracted the blue from the leaves, it is drained off: the sediment is then exposed in broad shallow vessels to the sun beams, thro' the heat of which the moisture evaporates, and the indigo itself remains in cakes at the bottom.

The oxen of India are of great utility, either for draught or carriage: though not so large as ours, they make much greater speed, travelling thirty miles a day, and more. Ten thousand of these animals are sometimes seen in a caravan. By a caravan we mean a prodigious number of oxen, camels, or other beasts of burthen, loaded with merchandize. Their drivers never have any fixed habitation, but take their families with them. Each caravan has a captain, who is particularly distinguished by wearing a string of pearls round his neck, and receives singular homage from all ranks of people. The caravans are divided into four classes, each class consisting of many thousand persons. These are attended by their priests; and each morning, before they set out, they pay their usual devotions to some idol. One caravan carries barley, another rice, a third beans and peas, and a fourth salt. Ten or a dozen oxen are generally employed in drawing a wagon, and two in drawing lighter carriages. When they bait, they are fed with grass, if it can be got; but there is little of this to be had in the south of India in this fair season, which is the proper time of the year for travelling, in which case they substitute fodder. The whole company sleep in tents, except those appointed as sentinels. Camels are but seldom used here, being inferior in utility to oxen. Those they have differ but little from the Arabian camels already described.

The elephant is the largest quadrupede in the universe: it is in height from 12 to 15 feet, and in breadth about 7. There cannot be a finer description of this unwieldy animal, than what we find in the sacred writings, where the elephant is termed Behemoth, which word, in Hebrew, implies "the collective strength of many beasts."

"Behold, now, Behemoth, which I made with thee; he eateth grass as an ox. Lo, now, his strength is in his loins, and his force is in the navel of his belly. He moveth his tail like a cedar: the sinews of his loins are wrapped together: his bones are as strong pieces of brass; his bones are like bars of iron. He is the chief of the ways of God: he that made him, can make his sword to approach unto him. Surely the mountains bring him forth food, where all the beasts of the field play. He lieth under the shady trees in the covert of the reed and fens. The shady trees cover him with their shadow. The willows of the brook compass him about. Behold, he drinketh up a river, and boasteth not: he trusteth that he can draw up Jordan into his mouth: he taketh it with his eyes: his nose pierceth through snares." Job xl. 15, &c.

The above passage is thus elegantly paraphrased by the celebrated Dr. Young:

Mild is my Behemoth, though large his frame:
Smooth is his temper, and repress his flame,
While unprovok'd. This native of the wood
Lifts his broad feet, and prowls abroad for food.
Earth sinks beneath him as he moves along
To seek the herbs, and mingle with the throng. See

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See with what strength his harden'd loins are bound,
 All over proof, and shut against a wound.
 How like a mountain cedar moves his tail !
 Nor can his complicated sinews fail.
 Built high and wide, his solid bones surpass
 The bars of steel : his ribs are ribs of brass.
 His port majestic, and his armed jaw,
 Give the wide forest and the mountain law.
 The mountains fear him ; there the beasts admire
 The mighty stranger, and in dread retire :
 At length his greatness nearer they survey
 Graze in his shadow, and his eye obey.
 The fens and marshes are his cool retreat,
 His noon-tide shelter from the burning heat :
 Their sedge bosoms his wide couch are made,
 And groves of willows give him all their shade.
 His eye drinks Jordan up ; when fir'd with drought,
 He bursts to turn its current down his throat :
 In lessen'd waves it creeps along the plain.
 He sinks a river, and he thirsts again.

The elephant commonly lives upon roots, leaves, grass, shrubs, &c. but he is fond of corn when he can get it, and will drink wine to intoxication. The female goes two years with young, brings but one at a time, which continues growing till it is thirty years of age, and is exceedingly fond of her progeny. In crossing a river the dam takes up her offspring with her trunk, and carries it safely over. It is remarkable that the female is the strongest and most courageous ; but the male is the largest and most graceful. The docility and sagacity of this animal are universally acknowledged : tho' able to encounter the most strong, it may be brought to be managed by the most weak. Its sensibility is such, that it expresses gratitude for those who treat it kindly, and always evinces a spirit of resentment against such as behave to it with indignity. Its eye, though small, is expressive and penetrating. Its sense of smelling is exquisite : but in the sense of feeling it is supposed to exceed all other animals.

When tamed, the elephant may be taught many things, by which it is rendered both useful and entertaining. It travels quick with a great burden ; and, when trained to war, will carry upon its back a wooden tower, containing men, ammunition, and provisions. In the fortification which it bears, a piece of cannon is often planted, and it will stand the firing of it without the least trepidation.

Many ancient writers have given various instances of the uncommon sagacity of this animal, which the observations of modern travellers seem to confirm. In particular, a celebrated traveller relates, in his account of the East Indies, that an elephant pushed his trunk into the window of a taylor's work-shop, when one of the men ran his needle into it, which so highly affronted the animal, that he went to a neighbouring brook, and having filled his trunk with water, returned to the shop, spouted it in at the window, and washed all the taylor's from off the place where they sat working ; evidently shewing that he had sense sufficient to comprehend an indignity, and spirit enough to resent one, at the same time joining humanity with his anger, and giving his revenge a ridiculous instead of a tragical turn.

To conclude, the celebrated Mr. Pope seems perfectly to acquiesce in the opinion of this animal's near approach to rationality in these lines :

How differs instinct in the grov'ling swine,
 Compar'd, half reas'ning elephant, with thine.

There are sheep, asses, buffalos, &c. here in plenty. In the southern parts are sheep, which have reddish hair instead of wool, and are much thinner and longer legged than ours. Their flesh is very dry and coarse. Fine Persian sheep, however, are brought into India, with good fleeces, and tails weighing several pounds. They have plenty of goats, and their kids are pretty good food. The hogs here, particularly the wild ones, are looked upon as the best butchers meat in the coun-

try. Antelopes, deer, and hares, are here in great numbers, and people have full liberty to hunt them whenever they please. Among their wild beasts are leopards, tygers, wolves, monkeys, &c. There is also the jackall, commonly called the lion's provider, from an opinion that it rouses the prey for that animal. The truth is, every creature in the forest is set in motion by the cries of the jackalls, which run about in companies at midnight, making so dreadful an howling, as to terrify other animals ; when the lion, and other beasts of rapine, attending to the chase by instinct, seize those timorous animals which fly from the noise of this nightly pack. The jackall is said to be of the size of a common fox, and to resemble that animal in the hinder parts, especially the tail, and the wolf in the fore parts, particularly the nose. Its legs are shorter than those of the fox, and its colour is a bright yellow. It has the ferocity of a wolf, and at the same time the familiarity of a dog. Its cry is between howling and barking, and its voice doleful, like that of human distress. These creatures often go together in packs of 40, 50, 100, or 200 together, hunting, like hounds in full cry, from evening till morning, and will sometimes make their appearance in towns and villages. Thus united, they destroy flocks and poultry, ravage gardens, and even attack children that are unprotected. When they cannot obtain living prey, they subsist upon roots, fruits, and carrion. They will voraciously take up the dead from their silent graves, and feed on the putrid flesh. They are constant attendants upon caravans and armies, expecting that death will supply them with a feast.

The tygers here are a kind of cats of the forest : their heads resemble that of a cat ; and they never pursue their prey fairly, but, on perceiving it at a distance, lie down close in some cover till the object approaches which they intend to seize, and then spring upon it with all imaginary fury and eagerness.

In the channels of the Ganges are amphibious animals called alligators, some of which are twenty feet long, with their backs armed with impenetrable scales, and are capable of swallowing a man. They pursue their prey as well upon land as in the water. Their bodies, however, being of so great a length, they turn with great difficulty, and a man may easily avoid them.

India abounds with poultry, but the flesh of them is not so good as the European. Here are likewise great numbers of vultures, and white headed kites, which the banyans hold in high estimation, and pay them religious honours. They have no great variety of singing birds in India ; but they have bats nearly as large as kites.

The inhabitants here are annoyed by swarms of troublesome insects and reptiles. The mosketos or gnats will seize upon a person on his first landing on shore, and, in one night's time, swell a man's face and head so much, that his friends shall hardly know him. However, when an European has been some time in the country, he does not suffer by them so much ; their stings have not then an equal effect ; but they are at all times so troublesome, that people keep slaves on purpose to brush them off, especially in the season of sleep and retirement. Bugs also are here in swarms ; but these are avoided, indeed, by tarring the feet of the couch on which people repose themselves, for they cannot crawl over the tar. There are house scorpions, which are both troublesome and dangerous : they are about as thick and as long as a man's little finger, and shaped almost like a lizard : their stings are not mortal, but cause the most excruciating pain, insomuch that the person stung is almost deprived of his senses whilst the pain lasts. If the least dust be left in the corner of a room near the ceiling, these creatures will get into it, and drop upon the couches that people sleep on. They carry their stings open at the end of their tails curled upon their backs. Snakes will likewise get into the rooms or warehouses, and suddenly dart at people. There are various kinds of snakes and serpents in India, and

and the *cobre-capelle*, or hooded snake, is extremely beautiful, though his sting is dangerous. It will spread its head as broad as one's hand, and at that time discovers a kind of human face. The jugglers and merry-andrews of the country carry several of these reptiles in baskets, and, on singing to them, and playing on some instrument, the snakes raise the upper parts of their bodies, and keep time with the music by the motion of their heads. These reptiles are first drawn from their holes by means of a musical instrument somewhat like a flagelet; so powerfully does music operate on them. This might appear fabulous, was it not authenticated by persons of veracity and character.

To the little green snake, which will dart from tree to tree, where the trees stand thick, some people have given the appellation of the flying serpent. The centipede is no other than what the French call *cent-pied*, and the English *wood-louse*. It is obvious that it receives its name from its great number of legs. Its sting or bite is as dangerous as that of the scorpion.

Frogs, toads, and rats, grow here to a considerable size. The rats are at least three times as big as English rats, and very daring: they will sometimes scarcely suffer a person to pass. There is, however, one species of rat, called the musk-rat, covered with a soft white down. It is naturally very inoffensive, and obnoxious only on account of its spoiling tea and wine by its infectious breath, which it effects by running over the boxes of the first, and gnawing the corks from the bottles of the latter.

In many parts are swarms of ants, which are particularly destructive to cloaths, furniture, and even buildings.

The seas in India abound with fish. Among these are dolphins, bonetas, and albacores. The former has not the faintest resemblance to the descriptions of that fish as given by our painters: it is as strait a fish as any that swims, and has a bright golden colour, appearing through the ground-work of a beautiful azure that is mixed with it. The fish, however, is no sooner out of its element, than its colours begin to fade.

There are many sorts of shell-fish on the coast of India, particularly oysters, which are little inferior to those caught on the coast of England.

SECTION III.

Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Marriages, Funerals, Custom of Women burning themselves with their deceased Husbands, Description of the Polygars, &c.

THE natives of these climes differ in complexion according to situation, but are, in general, of the middle stature, and have good features. Those of the northern part are of a deep olive colour, and those in the south black. Those who dwell on the mountains in the center of the peninsula are exceedingly black. All have black eyes, and long black hair.

The dress the men wear is a white vest, girt with a sash. Some are of silk, some of muslin, and some of cotton. The sleeves are very long; and the upper part of the garment is contrived to fit so as the wearer's shape may be seen. Under this is another, somewhat shorter. Their legs are covered by their breeches. They wear slippers peaked like womens shoes, into which they put their bare feet. Their hair is tied up in a roll, over which they wear a small turban.

The dress of the women is a piece of white callico tied about their waists, which reaches to their knees, and the rest is thrown across their shoulders, covering their breasts, and part of their backs. Their hair, like the mens, is tied up in a roll, and adorned with jewels, or toys in imitation of them. They have pendants in their ears and noses, and several strings of beads round their necks. They wear bracelets on their rings and ancles, and rings on their fingers and toes. They put their bare feet into slippers as the men do: though, indeed, in the southern parts, some of the women wear no slippers or shoes at all.

The dress of the Moors, or Mahometans, is very handsome and becoming. They have grand turbans of rich muslin, and their garments reach down to their feet. Their sashes are embroidered in great taste, the ends being decorated with gold and silver tissue. In their sashes they stick their daggers: and they wear embroidered slippers, which they take off, and leave at the foot of a sofa when on a visit.

They are remarkably fond of smoking tobacco, and use the calaan; their method of doing which has been already described under the head of Persia, p. 145. The poor roll up a leaf of tobacco about four or five inches long, and lighting it at one end smoke the other till it is about half exhausted, and then throw it away.

In manners the inhabitants of Hindostan resemble the other natives of Southern Asia. They are effeminate, luxurious, and by education taught to affect a grave deportment. This naturally initiates them early into the arts of dissimulation; so that they can care for those whom they hate, and even behave with the utmost affability and kindness to such as they intend to deprive of existence by the most sanguinary means. Many of them may justly say,

Why, I can smile, and murder while I smile,
And cry content to that which grieves my heart;
And wet my cheeks with artificial tears,
And frame my face to all occasions."

Thus educated, they seldom scold or wrangle, but often stab each other invidiously, and, without any public quarrel, gratify a private revenge.

Their common method of salutation is by lifting one or both hands to the head, according to the quality of the person saluted; but they never salute with the left hand singly. The salutation of a prince is bowing the body very low, putting the hand to the ground, then to the breast, and afterwards raising it to the head: this is repeated thrice: and some fall on their faces before a prince. An elegant modern writer observes, "That sometimes, to shew greater awe and deference, they throw themselves into a fit of trembling, as if they were shaken by an ague." But this last piece of mummery is reserved for great occasions. In short, there is no posture too base, no language too humble, no submission or flattery too gross, to be given to those they fear.

On visits among friends, the master of the house never gets up to receive his visitor, but requests him to sit down by him on the carpet, (for their floors are spread with rich carpets,) and betel and areka are then offered him to chew, which, as in the neighbouring countries, they have almost continually in their mouth. They sit and chew together, but talk very little. They play at cards sometimes, but never game so high as the Chinese; nor are they out of temper when they lose.

At a public entertainment they send for a number of dancing girls, who entertain the company with a variety of dances, and perform plays by torch-light in the open air, which they execute with great judgement. They embellish their necks with carcanets, their arms with bracelets, and their ancles with small gold or silver chains. In their noses they wear jewels: and some of them form black circles round the whites of their eyes, which they think heightens their beauty.

The manner of drinking among the Gentoos is remarkable. They religiously avoid touching the vessel which contains the liquor with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the vessel at a distance. Their idea is that they would be polluted by stagnant water. They will drink from a pump, or of any running stream, but not out of a pool.

The Mahometans ride upon elephants, horses, and in palanquins. A palanquin is a kind of couch, covered with an arched canopy, and hath cushions, quilt, and pillows. It hangs upon bamboo, and the person in it may either sit upright, or loll at his ease. They are commonly carried by four men, two before, and two behind, by means of poles, the ends of which they place on their shoulders. Those in which the ladies ride are covered with a silk netting of different colours, that entirely

entirely prevents their being seen by any person. This is done by order of their husbands, who are naturally very jealous.

None but the Mogul himself, the princes of the blood, and great men, ride upon elephants, which are most superbly caparisoned: and here it must be observed, that the animal appears always delighted with the finery of its trappings.

The best horses used in India are brought from Persia and Arabia, and the Mahometans take great care of them.

Their houses are of two kinds, those built by the Moguls, and those by the original Indians. The houses of the Moguls are all in the Persian taste. In short, they imitate the Persians in most things: like them, they are fond of having elegant gardens, with pavilions, fountains, cascades, &c.

Most of the principal towns consist of the habitations of the Gentoos, which are, for the most part, very mean. In front of these houses are sheds on pillars, under which the natives expose their goods to sale, and entertain their friends and acquaintance. There are no windows opening to the streets. Even the palaces of their princes have no external elegance. The apartments in the houses of the wealthy are ornamented chiefly with looking-glasses, which are purchased of the Europeans; and many of their ceilings are inlaid with mother-of-pearl and ivory. The private rooms are always in the back part of the houses, for the better security of the women, so meanly jealous are the men.

All the great men have their seraglios or harems well supplied with handsome women; and so jealous are they, that they confine them very close, and follow the usual Asiatic method of committing them to the guard of eunuchs. Thus are frequently sacrificed numbers of beautiful young creatures to the caprice and jealousy of one man.

The Mahometans have public hummums for bathing, cupping, champing, &c. Champing is chafing and rubbing the limbs of a person, and causing the joints of the wrists and fingers to crack, in order to procure a brisk circulation of the blood.

The Indians marry at an early period; and some of the higher ranks of the Gentoos have the privilege of taking several wives. The little bride and bridegroom are carried through the streets, dressed in the most elegant taste, for several successive nights, the houses being at the same time illuminated. They are preceded by their relations and friends, with music playing, and streamers flying. They all proceed to the house of the bride's father, and the little couple being seated opposite to each other, and separated by a table, they reach out and join their hands across the table, when the priest puts a sort of hood upon the head of each, and supplicating heaven to prosper them, gives them the nuptial benediction.

The women begin to bear children at the age of about twelve, and treat their husbands with the most profound respect, affection, and tenderness. They are entirely in the power of their husbands, and bring them no other dowry than their wearing apparel, and perhaps a few female slaves. They, however, enjoy much greater freedom than the wives of the Mahometans; at least those who are married to tradesmen and mechanics.

The Bramins and Banyans generally content themselves with one wife; though the other tribes of Gentoos often take more.

A strange custom prevails among some of the naires or nobles, of one wife being subject to several husbands. The number is not so much limited by any specific law, as by a sort of tacit convention, by which it rarely exceeds half a dozen. The husbands cohabit with her alternately, according to priority of marriage; and each, on going to visit her, leaves his arms at the door, as a signal that none of the others must presume to enter.

When the wife who has more husbands than one brings forth a child, she nominates its father, who is at the expence of educating it; but from the impractica-

bility of assigning the real heir, the estates of the husband devolve to the children of their sisters, or others near in blood.

In Hindostan the expence of cloaths is trifling, as is that of food, firing, and lodging; but this must be understood as respecting the natives only. The Hindoos are not addicted to any expensive views, their passions and desires being gentle and moderate. They are frugal and industrious, and as eager to amass riches as any of the natives of Europe. Yet they admire splendour and magnificence, and particularly in what relates to their women, inasmuch, that upon the occasion of marriages, they pour forth the collected treasures of many industrious years.

Some tribes bury the bodies of the deceased, and others burn them on piles; but the latter is the most customary. Before they burn their dead, they carry them on a bier to a small distance from the town or village where they died, dressed in their usual wearing apparel. A pile is erected on the destined spot, and the corpse placed upon it; and as soon as the Bramin, or priest, has done praying, one of the corners of the pile is set fire to. When the body is consumed, its relics, or ashes, are gathered, and thrown into the sea by the Bramin: for the funeral pile is always erected near the sea, or some large piece of water. Some persons, on the approach of their dissolution, request that their ashes may be put into an urn, and carried to the Ganges. The person who sets fire to the pile is always the nearest relation, who walks bare-headed, in a coarse tattered garment, (their common mourning,) round it three times before he places the fire-stick, and when the whole is in a blaze, he appears distracted with the most agonizing grief.

Fidelity to their husbands is the most distinguishing and supreme characteristic of the Indian married ladies. Some of the wives of the Bramins have even burnt themselves in consequence of the deaths of their husbands: though, perhaps, it may be said, that the injunction of the laws, more than sentiments of affection, occasioned such sacrifice. This custom is said to have originated from the practice of burning Gentoowives for poisoning their husbands: but this, perhaps, may not be the case, as the law recommends a voluntary sacrifice.

As it has been asserted by some writers, that the custom of the Gentoowomen burning themselves with their deceased husbands is now disused in India, we insert the following account communicated by Joseph Cator, Esq. who resided at Calcutta in the year 1779, to Thomas Pearson, Esq. of London.

"Being informed that the wife of a Bramin of superior cast, a man of integrity, and much respected among the Europeans, was resolved to be burnt with her deceased husband, I accordingly went to the destined spot, where the corpse of the Bramin lay naked on a pile of sandal wood and dry straw, about four feet from the ground. His wife was seen praying near the pile, where her children, two boys and a girl, (one of the boys seven years, the other five, and the girl thirteen months old,) and her husband's eldest brother, were present with her. At sight of her children, the ties of nature struggling with her resolution, drew a tear from her; but she soon recovered herself, and told her children that their father was dead, and she was going to die with him; that they must look up to their uncle, who would be both father and mother to them, and therefore demanded the obedience once due to them. This done, she committed them to the care of the uncle, left them, and advanced towards the funeral pile, which was surrounded by a vast concourse of people, chiefly Bramins, about eight or ten feet from it, so that there was a free passage round the pile.

"When she appeared in the circle she seemed confused, but whether from the sight of her husband laying dead on the pile, the crowd assembled, or seeing Europeans among them, could not be ascertained. However, she soon recovered herself. She then walked gently

gently unattended round the pile in silence, strewing flowers as she went round; and when she had nearly completed the third time, she got up at her husband's feet upon the pile without assistance, strewed flowers over it, and then laid herself down at the left side of her husband, raising his head, and putting her right arm under his neck, then turning her body to his, threw her left arm over him, when one of the Bramins raised his right leg, and put it over her legs, without a syllable being uttered. Being thus closely embraced, a blue shawl was laid over them, and they were not seen afterwards by anybody. Some dry straw was laid over the shawl, and then some light billets of sandal wood was put upon the straw; but altogether not sufficient to prevent her raising herself up, throwing all off, and extricating herself from the pile, if she had repented, or, from feeling the heat of the fire, had been inclined to save her life. The dry straw, which composed a part of the pile, was then lighted. During the whole time, from the moment she made her appearance in the circle, to the lighting of the pile, there was a profound silence: but on the pile being lighted, the Bramins called out aloud, some dancing and brandishing cudgels or sticks, perhaps to prevent the cries being heard by the multitude, so as to give them a bad impression of it, or deter other women from following what the Hindoos term a laudable example.

"I was so near the pile, that, notwithstanding the noise made by the Bramins, and those that danced round it, I could have heard any cries or lamentations she might have made; so that I am convinced she made none, and that the smoke must have suffocated her in a very short space of time. I staid about ten minutes after the pile was lighted; for such a sight was too dreadful to remain long at: besides, nothing more was to be seen except the flames, which Mr. Shakespeare and I had a perfect view of at a distance, as we returned from the funeral pile.

"This Bramin's wife was a tall, well made, good looking woman, fairer than the generality of Hindoo women are, about twenty or, perhaps, twenty-two years of age, at most. She was decently dressed in a white cloth round her waist, and an ooiny of white cloth, with a red silk border, thrown loosely over her head and shoulders; but her face, arms, and feet, were bare.

"I have heard, and, indeed, supposed, that women in such a situation intoxicate themselves; but, from the relation given me of what passed between the Bramin's wife, her children, and brother-in-law, as well as what Mr. Shakespeare and I saw at the funeral pile, I am persuaded she was as free from intoxication during the whole ceremony, as it is possible to be; for she appeared to be perfectly composed, not in the least flurried, except at first for an instant of time, as before observed; but went through it deliberately, with an astonishing fortitude and resolution.

"This barbarous custom, so shocking to Europeans, if I mistake not, was practised by our ancestors in Britain, in the time of the Druids; but whether our countrywomen in those days were treated with the same contempt, after the death of their husbands, as the Hindoo women are, I know not; for, by the religion of the Hindoos, they never can marry again, or have any commerce with another man, without prejudice to their casts, which, to them, is as dear as life itself; but generally are reduced to perform the most menial offices in the family of which they were before the mistress.

"This reflection, together with the great credit they gain amongst the Bramins, in undergoing so painful a ceremony, may be very strong inducements to their continuing this practice.

"I have now given a full and circumstantial relation of the whole matter respecting the wife of this Bramin sacrificing herself on the funeral pile of her husband. Such parts of it as were told me of what was done out of my sight, I have no reason to doubt; and

what I have written may be depended on as literally true. But I omitted to observe, that though the Bramins shed tears when praying by their brother the night previous to his death, there did not appear the least concern in any of them during the ceremony at the funeral pile, not even in his eldest brother, or any of his dependents."

When this astonishing instance of attachment to husbands is considered, it cannot be easily reconcileable to European ideas, that a people, boasting of some refinement, should, in the most public manner, be guilty of every species of indelicacy to their females. Many nations have the custom of immuring their women, but the Hindoos seem singular in the grossness of their ordinances relative to them.

It is unaccountably strange, that, notwithstanding all this severity of disposition, and their contemptuous treatment of the Hindoo women, the men are very constant to their wives, the women are remarkably chaste, and adultery is a crime seldom to be heard of among them.

As to their food, both Mahometans and Gentoos eat rice stewed till it is quite dry: this they eat as we do bread. A favourite dish with them is what they call pilau: it is a fowl boiled with rice, and seasoned with turmeric. Another dish is the curry, which is a sort of fricassée of animal food or vegetables: and another is the kitcharee, which is rice stewed with a sort of pulse, and is eaten commonly with pickles of different kinds. They never use any knives, forks, or spoons, but eat with their fingers only. They always wash their hands both before and after meals, and use only the right hand in eating. Water is their common liquor: they also drink the milk of the cocoa-nut. As to beer, ale, or wine, there is not a drop of either of these liquors made in India; they buy all of the Europeans. They have spirits of several sorts, which they call arrack, some of which is distilled from sugar, and some from rice: the latter is drank chiefly by the common people. These Indians are in general very sober, and some of them abstain from all animal food. The Bramins, in particular, never eat any thing that has had animal life: curries of vegetables are their common diet, the chief ingredients of which are turmeric, spices, and the cocoa nut pulp.

It is generally known, that the practice of inoculating for the small-pox is common in all Asiatic countries. It may not, therefore, be improper to observe, from the declaration of a late ingenious traveller, that there is an art in Hindostan, not yet known in Europe, by which the women effectually prevent any traces of the small-pox on the faces of their little ones. This preservative is composed of a talve made of certain Indian herbs, and a certain kind of oil, which they apply as soon as the pock begins to blacken. It is presumed that the nature of this preparation would be communicated on enquiry; and it must be allowed, beyond a doubt, a matter worthy of notice.

The same person mentions another operation of the surgical kind, as attended with the happiest effects. In cases of bruises in any part of the body by a fall, a blow, or otherwise, those who are nearest the patient presently strip off the greater part of his cloaths, and, with the palms of their hands, gently rub the affected part, and proceeding from that spot, rub over, with greater force, the whole body. This good office is generally performed by the women, who are, indeed, the surgeons and physicians of the country, and who handle their patients with the utmost ease and tenderness.

There are people in Indostan, inhabitants of almost impenetrable woods, who are under the absolute direction of their own chieftains, and in times of peace are professional robbers, but in times of war the guardians of their country. The general name of these people is *Polygar*. Their original institution, (for they live in distinct clans) is not very well understood.

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The pollams or woods, from which is derived the word Polygar, lying in profusion through all the southern parts of Hindostan, the ravages committed in the open countries by those adventurous clans are both frequent and destructive. Cattle and grain are the constant booty of the Polygars. They not unfrequently despoil travellers of their property, and sometimes murder if they meet with opposition: yet these very Polygars are the hands into which the aged and infirm, the wives, children, and treasure of both Hindoos and others are entrusted, when the circumjacent country unfortunately happens to be the seat of war. The protection they afford is paid for; but the price is inconsiderable, when the helpless situation of those that fly to them, and especially when their own peculiar character is properly attended to. The government of Indostan is under a necessity of tolerating this honourable banditti. Many of them are so formidable as to be able to bring 15 and 20,000 men into the field.

The Hindoo code of laws, in speaking of robberies, hath this remarkable clause. "The mode of shares amongst robbers shall be this: If any thief or thieves, by the command of the magistrate, and with his assistance, have committed depredations upon, and brought away booty from another province, the magistrate shall receive a share of one sixth part of the whole. If they received no command or assistance from the magistrate, they shall give him in that case one tenth part for his share, and of the remainder their chief shall receive four shares: whosoever among them is perfect master of his occupation shall receive three shares; whichever of them is remarkably strong and stout shall receive two shares, and the rest shall receive each one share."

Here then we see not only a sanction, but even an inducement to fraudulent practices; another singular inconsistency among a people who in many periods of their history have been proverbial for innocency of manners and uncommon honesty in their conduct towards travellers and strangers.

The natural indolence to which the people of this country are accustomed may, in some degree, be accounted for, from the excessive heat of the climate, which prevents them either from pursuing business or amusement the chief part of the day. The only times they can follow these are, the early part of the morning, and the latter part of the evening, so that they are obliged to rise early, and sit up late. All ranks of people, even the most menial servants, retire to rest after dinner; and from that time till near sun-set, every thing is as silent as at midnight; after which they dress and recreate themselves according to their respective stations.

The genius of these people being rather imitative than inventive, they have naturally less curiosity than the Europeans, and do not, therefore, so often vary their fashions. From their temper and tenets, as well as from several hints in ancient historians, it appears more than probable, that the same kind of garments, food, furniture, buildings, and manners in general, which prevailed among their progenitors some thousand years ago, actually prevail among the Hindoo tribes at this day.

SECTION IV.

Ancient and present State of Science, Languages, &c. in India.

THE sciences must have been cultivated in this country at an early period, as before the time of Pythagoras the Greeks travelled into India for instruction. The native Indians, or Hindoos, are men of strong natural endowments, though they have but little literary knowledge; they have, however, some of Aristotle's works in the Arabian language, as well as those of Avicenna, and some passages in the Old Testament. The Gentoos, or original Indians, begin their

year on the first day of March, and the Mahometans on the tenth, and their year is composed of thirteen moons. The day they divide into four parts, and the night into four, which they again subdivide into eight, and measure them by water dropping from one vessel into another. In some of the principal towns there is a large vessel fixed, which a person constantly attends.

The Bramins are adepts in arithmetic, at least in the practical part; in their childhood they are instructed to cast up sums by their fingers only. They have tables for calculating the approach of an eclipse, but are no theorists in their calculations.

Their grand and favourite science is astrology, and the Indian Bramins are the almanack-makers, who mark down what they prophecy will be lucky or unlucky days; and so infatuated are the Gentoos, that their merchants will transact no kind of business on the days predicted to be unlucky.

They have very little skill in physic and anatomy. The Bramins use charms for the expulsion of disorders: they, however, at the same time apply simples, and with good success: they allow no liquor but water, mixed with cassia, lignum. or cinnamon.

The Indians are subject to the bloody flux, which they cure by the prescription of stewed rice.

The languages and dialects spoken in India are various. The language spoken at court is the Persian; what is deemed the learned language is the Arabian; but none is so generally understood as the Persian, though much corrupted. The Hindoo, incorporated with a great many Persian and Arabic words, is spoken throughout Indostan and other parts of India, though the accent and dialect differ in the several places where it is spoken; the purest is spoken in the province of Agra.

Here was invented the game of chess: we owe to them the use of cyphers, which, though imported among us by the Arabians, came originally from India. The ancient Indian medals, in such esteem among the Chinese, prove that the arts were cultivated in India, even before they were known in China.

SECTION V.

Religion of India in general, and the different Sectaries particular.

THE mythology of the Indians is very irregular. The religious and philosophic books of the Hindoos are called Bedas. They are written in Sanscrita, a language known only to the Bramins, who confine those writings entirely to their own tribe.

The Hindoos inflexibly adhere to the Mosaic injunctions; "Thou shalt not muzzle the ox when he treadeth over the corn." They muzzle not the ox, but let him quietly tread out the grain as the Israelites used to do of old.

There is reason to believe, that the Indians were almost as civilized when Brama instituted his laws, as they are at this time. It is from him the Indians derive their religious veneration for the two great rivers, Ganges and Indus; it was he who consecrated the cow, whose milk is so wholesome and agreeable in hot countries; and to him is attributed the division of the people into tribes; which institution is antecedent to all traditions and known records, and may be considered as the most striking testimony of the antiquity of the Indians. Throughout all Hindostan, the laws of government, customs, and manners, form a part of religion, and are all derived from Brama, who was the author of the sacred books. He prescribed different sorts of food for the respective tribes: the military, and some other ranks, were allowed to eat venison and mutton; fish was allowed to some husbandmen and mechanics; and others lived upon vegetables and milk.

Although we are not so well acquainted with the cast of Bramins, as might be expected from the enlarged knowledge, commerce, and curiosity of the present times,

times, we know enough of them to conclude with certainty, that they have degenerated from the purity of their ancestors. In the present times it is asserted, that European usurpers sometimes make use even of the Bramins as tools of oppression and instruments of plunder. But whatever their lives be, their doctrines upon the whole are true and excellent; for among several errors, they maintain those truths which form the harmony of the world, viz. "That God is delighted with charity and good works, more than by any other sacrifices." In general, their religious tenets are very consistent with the ideas which are entertained of the divinity in Europe. Many superstitious practices have been introduced among the generality of the people, and the use of images is common, though seemingly (according to a candid observer) not as objects of adoration, but lively representations of those attributes which they believe the Almighty Being only to possess.

The Bramins are very sober and temperate, and, upon the whole, exemplary in their conduct. They divide past time into four distinct ages, and pretend to trace the existence of time through a vast succession of years. The four sacred books, or bedas, contain an hundred thousand poetic stanzas, each consisting of four lines; the first treats of astrology, natural philosophy, astronomy, and the creation of matter; the second treats of religious and moral duties, and has sacred songs or hymns in honour of the Divinity; the third has for its subject, all religious rites and ceremonies, as fasts, festivals, penances, purifications, &c. and the fourth comprehends the whole science of theology and metaphysical philosophy. However, since the rise of the Mahometan religion, the Bramins have laid aside the fourth book, or beda; as the heresy of Mahomet, according to them, hath been founded upon that book.

It may be necessary to observe, that the term Gentoo distinguishes the Hindoos from the Mahometans or Musselmans, commonly, though improperly, denominated Moors. The word has its derivation from Gentio, in Portuguese, signifying Gentile.

The Hindoos are divided into four tribes, the most considerable of which are the Bramins; of these there are several orders: those who mix in society are, for the most part, very corrupt in their morals; they say that the water of the Ganges will wash away all their crimes; and, as they are not subject to any civil jurisdiction, they live without either virtue or restraint; except, indeed, that they have the great character of compassion and charity; principles eminently distinguishable in the mild climate of India.

An Hindoo, being banished and disgraced, is forced to join the Hallachores, who are a tribe, or rather the refuse of all tribes; for they perform the vilest offices in life, and are held in such general abomination, that on the Malabar side of India, if one of them happens to touch a person of a superior tribe, he receives a dagger in his body, and the laws countenance the deed.

The Hindoos, or Gentoos, are considerably more numerous than the Mahometans. Avarice is their chief passion; a passion which prevails, for the most part, in persons of weak bodies and little minds.

The latest writer upon this subject, which we have seen, thus describes their character:

"To sum up their general character in few words; they are gentle, patient, temperate, regular in their lives, charitable, and strict observers of their religious ceremonies. They are superstitious, effeminate, avaritious, and crafty; deceitful and dishonest in their dealings, void of every principle of honour, generosity or gratitude. Gain is their predominant principle; and, as a part of their gains, bestowed in gifts to their priests, or charities to the poor, will procure their pardon, they can cheat without fearing the anger of their Gods."

The division of the Gentoos into tribes or classes, discovers a striking peculiarity in their government and religion. The tribes are headed by a chief, who is in

some degree responsible for the conduct of those under him; and individuals, on proper occasions, are sometimes summoned to assemble together, in conformity to the requisitions of government.

SECTION VI.

Government, Climate, Constitution, Civil, Military, &c. of India.

BOTH the lives and fortunes of the people are wholly at the disposal of the Great Mogul. Civil slavery hath been here added to political slavery; the subject oppressed has no law to protect him. Here a man scarce dares to think; his soul is so much debased, that its faculties are destroyed; despotism debases and stifles every kind of sentiment. The subject is not master of his own life; he is not master of his own understanding: he is debarred from all studies that are serviceable to human kind, and is only allowed such as are calculated to enslave him. He is not master of his own field; the lands, and their produce, belong to the sovereign; and the peasant must be contented, if he can earn just enough to keep himself and his family with a common degree of decency. He is not master of his own industry; every artist, who has been so unhappy as to betray his talents, lives in dread of being fated to serve the monarch, or some powerful courtier, who hath purchased a right to use and employ him as he thinks proper. He is not master of his own money; he is forced to conceal it in the earth, by way of securing it from the tyrannic hand of power. The will of the Mogul is the only law of his subjects; it decides all lawsuits, without any person's daring to call it in question, on pain of being deprived of life. At his command alone, the greatest personages are put to death, and their possessions taken from their families. No doubt this absolute and tyrannical authority, with which the Indian is every where oppressed, must subdue his spirit, and render him incapable of those efforts which courage requires.

The climate of this country is another obstacle to any liberal exertion: the indolence it inspires is an invincible impediment to great revolutions and vigorous oppositions, so common in northern regions. The soul and body equally enervated, have only the virtues and vices of slavery. Since, then, the climate hath so powerful an effect over both mind and body, its influence must bear a mutual analogy to the different heights of the soil on which a man breathes, independent of other local causes, which must make some exceptions to the general rule.

The emperor of Hindostan sometimes appears at a window at sun rise, when all the great men of his court are obliged to attend in his apartments to do him homage. At sun-set he also appears at a window, and receives the acclamations of the people. The principal officers of his empire are the prime vizir, the first secretary of state, the treasurer, the chief of the eunuchs, the general of the elephants, and the master of the wardrobe.

No persons must presume to enter the imperial palace except the rajas and great officers, and they must pay a most profound reverence to the emperor, and prostrate themselves when they depart from him.

No pomp, magnificence, or luxury, is comparable to the ostentatious brilliancy of the Great Mogul when he appears in public. He sits upon a throne of gold, glittering with precious stones. The throne and monarch are both upon the back of an elephant, which elevation gives the emperor such an air of grandeur, as must surpass the conception of any European who has not seen him.

As the elephant moves slowly on, the people fall prostrate before their great and mighty prince. Thus, by dazzling the eyes of his slaves, and inspiring them with terror, he supports his despotic authority.

On the shield of this splendid despot are placed diamonds and rubies, on his head is a gaudy turban, and

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on his neck a rich chain of pearls. Besides a sword, he has a quiver of arrows; and on the right and left side of him hang rubies or diamonds. He holds a staff in his hand, adorned with drilled diamonds. He has rich bracelets on his wrists, as well as above his elbows; and on his fingers are costly rings.

When the emperor marches with his troops, he is attended by about 100 elephants, richly caparisoned, and 10 or 12,000 men. In the center, either on an elephant, or a fine Persian horse, he rides himself. When he goes into the country, he is seated in a covered chariot, drawn by oxen.

The emperor has under him four principal secretaries of state.

The sons of the emperor are stiled sultans, and his daughters sultanas: the nabobs are viceroys or governors of provinces: the next in rank have the title of khan, or cawn: the great officers in the army are stiled omrahs; and the chief, or general, is called mirza. The Subah of the Decan hath the superintendence of all the Mogul governors within his jurisdiction, and whose supreme viceroyalty is made up of several provinces, which were formerly so many independent states. The women in the emperor's seraglio are upwards of 1000. He allows himself several wives, and generally marries some of his own subjects. The first son of either wife is heir to the emperor, though the crown is usually enjoyed by him whose sword can do the most execution.

At the age of about twelve or fourteen years the sultans are married, and sent to different governments, the heir to the throne excepted, who stays at home. The sultanas, who are restrained from marrying, are educated very liberally; and, in consequence of that restriction, great indulgencies are often given to those princesses. The governesses of these ladies have frequently no inconsiderable share in the government; for great offices are often disposed of through the sole influence of these women, each of whom, indeed, has a title answerable to some consequential department, and corresponding with the minister whose title she bears. The emperor, in retirement, is attended and served entirely by women.

With respect to the laws of Hindostan, the emperor himself decides in all capital cases, as do his viceroys in their different governments. There are no written laws, particular punishments being inflicted for particular offences. Murder and robbery are punished with death: but the mode of executing it is solely in the will of the Mogul or his viceroy. Some offenders are beheaded, some hanged, some impaled upon sharp-pointed stakes, and others trampled to death by elephants.

The poor criminal who is doomed to suffer excessive torture, has the bones of his legs and arms broken by the elephant, who kicks him in those parts with his heavy foot, and then leaves the victim to expire. There have been instances of delinquents being torn to pieces by dogs in the empire of Hindostan.

A court of justice is held at stated times for determining disputes relative to property, and other controversies among the people. It is called the *darbar*, and is a large building, open on one side for the admission of spectators. Hither the injured person repairs, and addressing himself to the court, calls out with an audible voice for justice against the offender. As soon as he is observed by the judge, he proceeds to the upper end of the court, and relates his grievances with all the humility he is master of, as the favour of the judge is his only dependance for redress. This degree of flattery, however, will not operate without it is attended with pecuniary compliments; and that party which outvies the other in this particular, is sure to obtain a conquest over his adversary; so that the grievance of the complainant is often increased by advancing one part of his property in expectation of obtaining the other.

Courts are likewise held in every town and village for the administration of justice, the principal person acting as judge, and determining all disputes within his

district. The determination, however, is generally formed in favour of him who displays the greatest degree of liberality.

Law-suits are here very quickly adjusted, as the whole power of deciding is solely vested in the judge, whose principle is avarice, and whose soul is a stranger to tender or equitable sentiments.

When the Great Mogul himself holds a divan or public court, he is seated on the musnud, which is a kind of stage elevated to the height of about two feet, covered with a superb cloth, embroidered and fringed with gold. In the center of the musnud is placed an oblong plate of gilded silver, turned up at the edges, and resembling a tea-board, upon which the *Conqueror of the World* (for so the Mogul stiles himself) sits cross-legged. His officers surround him, his courtiers adulate him, and the unfortunate petition him. As there is something singular in the ceremonial of the latter, it may be entertaining to particularize it. The petitioner is obliged to leave his slippers on the outside of the door, and to advance barefooted in token of humility: he then makes three saalams, or salutes, to express his profound veneration, bows his forehead to the ground, and presents his petition, together with a purse of gold, as the one would be useless without the other; for the first only contains a detail of grievances, but the latter is filled with that persuasive eloquence which alone can induce the monarch to redress them. The petitioner, on presenting the paper and purse, usually says, "Read this my petition: the day will come when all petitions shall be read." If the Mogul does not choose to receive the petition, he frowns, and turns away his head; but if the petitioner finds favour in his sight, that is, if the bribe is sufficiently large, and the ministers have been previously well fed, he smiles, and gives a gracious nod of approbation. The Mogul does not, however, always redress the grievance when he receives the memorial and its golden attendant, but is frequently so charmed with the rhetoric of the latter, that he puts the object of oppression to the trouble and expence of repeating the former. Such is the determination of justice in India!

The civil institutions of the Hindoos respecting the division and security of property, and the internal police of the country, were originally founded on principles of the soundest political wisdom, and were well calculated to promote the happiness of the people; but the different innovations of despotism have marred the harmony of the ancient constitution, and rendered property and personal liberty more precarious, less defined, and more exposed to chicanery and misconstruction.

Every year two grand and solemn festivals are celebrated in honour of the Mogul. The first, which commences with the new year, continues about twenty days. Before the royal palace is built a splendid theatre, which the emperor ascends, and seating himself on a cushion decorated with pearls and gold, receives the presents brought to him from his people. The other festival is held on his birth-day, when he dresses himself in his most gaudy apparel, and enters a magnificent pavillion, attended by his courtiers, where are two large scales, the chains of which are of massy gold, adorned with jewels. In one of these scales the emperor places himself, in order to balance or preponderate the other, which is filled with rubies, emeralds, pearls, gold, silver, fine stuffs, cinnamon, cloves, herbs, &c. and an exact account is taken of the difference of his weight from the last year: if he weighs more the present year than the last, the people shout and rejoice; if less, they manifest every expression of concern.

The soldiers make up the smallest part of the Indian camps, which are pitched in one form, and are nearly round. Every trooper is attended by his wife, his children, and two servants. The generals and officers train is proportioned to their ambition and vanity. The sovereign himself, more intent upon parade and magnificence than the emergencies of war, has an unbounded train of wives, courtiers, elephants, &c.

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In general, the troops of the Mogul are furnished by the rajahs. He has several regiments called household troops, which are his body guards. There are also the guards of the golden mace, the silver mace, and the iron mace: these carry maces, and are all chosen men, who have distinguished themselves by their valour. But the most respectable and honourable body among the emperor's forces is a regiment of 4000 men, called the emperor's slaves; these are the principal of the household troops, or body guards; and their daroga, or commander, is a person of very great authority.

The arms of the cavalry are a sabre, a dagger, a bow and quiver of arrows, a lance, a kind of carbine, and a shield. Those of the infantry are a sword and dagger, a bow and arrows, a shield, and either a spike or musket. They have also small guns, which they fire from the backs of elephants. Added to all these they have an heavy artillery; though it must be confessed they are obliged to have European gunners to manage it.

The whole country is in agitation to provide for the ostentation and pomp of a camp, and orders are issued for the bringing in provisions from every quarter to supply it. There is always great confusion in its operations; and a famine, with contagious distempers, frequently attend it. There are, besides, considerable losses sustained in men, beasts, and implements of war, in crossing difficult roads, and particularly in passing over rivers; for, in the rainy season, the rivers become so rapid, that the landing-places are often a mile below the places of embarkation.

Notwithstanding they affect a strong passion for military glory, the natives of Hindostan engage in war as seldom as possible. Those who have had the good fortune to obtain some marks of distinction in battle, are excused from serving for some time, and there are few who do not avail themselves of this privilege.

SECTION VII.

Commerce, Manufactures, Architecture, Revenue, Coins, Weights, Measures, &c.

THE merchants of Hindostan carry on a brisk and flourishing trade to Persia and the Red Sea, supplying both Persia and Turkey with all the rich merchandize of India; in return for which they import pearls, carpets, and other Persian commodities, but chiefly treasure to a vast amount.

As revolutions in Asia are so frequent, trade cannot be carried on in the same continued track as it is in Europe. European ships are used for the importation of Indian treasure, by way of security from the assaults of pirates.

They do not universally observe one and the same method in painting their cottons; either because there are some niceties peculiar to certain provinces, or because different soils produce different drugs for the same uses.

The chief manufactures of Hindostan are callicos, silks, and muslins. We import from thence indigo, salt-petre, opium, pepper, &c. &c. with diamonds and other precious stones.

The commodities exported from Europe are gold and silver lace, English broad-cloth, sword-blades, looking-glasses, hard-ward, tin-ware, brandy, beer, &c. &c. All the goods carried to India, however, are trifling in proportion to the bullion and foreign coin taken thither.

The natives forge very good blades of swords and poinards in some places. However, they cannot make either clocks or watches.

The cement used in house-building is made of sea-shells, and is harder than brick-work: they cover the tops of flat-roofed buildings with it, through which no bad weather can penetrate; and with this same cement they frequently lay the floors of their rooms.

The natives do not carry on the foreign trade of Comandel. In the western part, indeed, there are Mahometans who send vessels to Achen, Merguy, Siam, and the eastern coast. Exclusive of ships of considerable burthen employed in these voyages, they have smaller embarkations for the coasting trade of Ceylon, and the pearl fishery.

The Indians of Massulipatan import white callicos from Bengal, which they dye or print, and dispose of them again at the places from whence they had them, at a very considerable profit. Excepting these transactions, the trade is entirely vested in the hands of the Europeans, whose only partners are a few Armenians and Bramins.

Weaving is the principal employment throughout India; but the greatest manufactory is at Dacca in Bengal, where the finest callicos, muslins, and dimities are made.

The filligree is admirable, the workmanship costing infinitely more than the metal itself. It is not perforated as with us, but cut into shreds, and joined with such inimitable art, that the nicest eye cannot perceive the junctures.

The embroidery and needlework are infinitely superior to any thing of the kind done in Europe; but it is remarkable, that the embroiderers and sempstresses (if we may be permitted so to call them) are all men, whose patience is as astonishing as their slowness is singular.

The gold and silver silks and gauzes are manufactured at Benares, but their richness exceeds their elegance. They are executed without taste, and make a very dull appearance when finished, wanting the delightful gloss, and vivid colours, which so greatly enliven, and give such spirit and beauty to the silks and gauzes of Europe and other places.

The exceeding slowness of the manufacturers renders most of the commodities of India very expensive: none will work but when absolute necessity compels them to it: so that when a merchant has occasion for any article, he is obliged to send for the maker, furnish him with materials to proceed, and advance him the money that his labour will amount to previous to his entering upon the business.

They copy with exactness, but have neither genius to invent, or ingenuity to improve: hence their works are admirably neat, without being pleasingly elegant; and display the most exquisite fineness, without the least delicacy of taste.

At Surat they are very skilful in the ship-building art; though it must be acknowledged that their naval, as well as their other architecture, is rather awkward and clumsy. Their vessels are made of a wood called teak, which is as durable and solid as oak, and their masts come from the coast of Malabar. Their ropes are produced from the fibres of the cocoa-nut tree, and their sail-cloths from their cotton manufactures. They use the gum of the damar tree for pitch, and their anchors are for the most part European; and, indeed, the most valuable of their cordage is the produce of Europe. The small vessels that are used along the coast of Malabar are made of the above wood, the planks being fastened together with cords. They are flat at the bottom, and have not any rudder.

The Mogul's revenue is supposed to have amounted to about forty millions per annum, before Nadir Shah committed his depredations in the empire, who deprived it of its most valuable treasures, and, by enfeebling the sovereign's authority, enabled several nabobs to emancipate themselves from his power. The revenues arise from the customs of the sea-ports, the produce of the fields, the devolution of the estates to the crown, the presents from subjects, &c. &c.

The coins of Hindostan are the rupee, the gold mahor, the pagoda, the fanam, and the pice. The value of the rupee, a silver coin, is about 2s. 3d. the gold mahor is worth about 14 rupees; the pagoda is valued at 9s. and is so called from its being stamped with the figure

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figure of a pagoda; the fanam, a silver coin, is worth 3d. and the pice, which is a copper piece, is valued at about a halfpenny. Foreign coins are also current: but, for trifling articles, they sometimes make use of cowries or sea-shells, threescore of which are valued at about a halfpenny. Capital sums are reckoned by lacks or lacks, carons or carols, and arabs. A lack is 100,000 rupees, a caron is 100 lacks, and an arab is 10 carons. They make a threefold division of interest; one of which is vice, another neither vice or virtue, and a third virtue. This is their manner of expression. The interest that is vice, is four per cent. a month; and the interest that is virtue, one.

The common weight at Surat is the seer, which is about thirteen ounces; but their weights differ in almost every port, and sometimes even in the same port. We cannot, therefore, with any degree of accuracy, specify them.

The coss, with which they measure their land, is about an English mile and a half. In liquid and dry measures, one measure is a pint and a half; eight measures are one mercall, or twelve pints; and 400 mercalls are one garfic, or 600 gallons.

SECTION VIII.

Chief Provinces and Cities of Hindostan. Dehli invaded by the Patans. City of Agra. Description of a Fight between Men and Beasts at an Entertainment given by the Great Mogul. Divers other Provinces and Cities of Hindostan.

THE chief cities in the midland provinces of Hindostan, are those of Dehli and Agra. The city of Dehli, or Delli, capital of the province of Dehli, situated in the heart of the empire, is in 78 degrees east longitude from London, and in 26 degrees north latitude. It stands in the form of a crescent, on the river Gemma, which divides it; and it is distinguished into three towns, lying within about 120 miles north of Agra, in a fine plentiful country, where the air is more cool and salubrious than at Agra. The first town that was built is said to have had 9 castles and 52 gates. At some distance is a stone bridge, and a delightful plantation of trees, leading to the second town, which was taken from the Indians by the first Mogul conqueror. This was adorned and enriched by several magnificent sepulchres of the Patan princes, as well as other stately monuments, which were all demolished by Shah Jehan, father of Aurengzebe; but the latter rebuilt the town, and called it Jehan-Abad, transferring the seat of the empire hither from Agra, where the heat of the summer was too violent. The third town, which was erected close to the second, and formed out of its ruins, was called Dehli by the Indians, instead of Jehan-Abad, the basis of which was said to have been laid in blood, as the throats of malefactors were cut, by Jehan's order, "the better (he said) to cement the stones." He spared no expence whatever to adorn and beautify the gardens belonging to the royal palace, which were formed by an ingenious Venetian, after an Italian model.

The city of Dehli is entered by a long street, with arches on each side of it, under which are the shops of the tradesmen. This street leads directly to the palace, at the entrance of which are a couple of elephant figures, on whose backs ride two famous rajahs, representatives of two brothers, who lost their lives in bravely defending certain towns laid siege to by Eekbar. The palace is a very magnificent building, with brilliant porticos, elegant apartments, and every appurtenance that can conduce to use and ornament.

In this city is a spacious mosque, and a very magnificent caravanera. The latter of these was erected by a Mogul princess. It is situated in a large square, and surrounded by arches supporting open galleries, where the Persian, Usbec, and other foreign merchants lodge, and have also warehouses for their effects.

The houses of the great, which are on the banks of the river, or in the suburbs, are spacious and airy, having large courts, cellars, gardens, groves, ponds, fountains, and enormous fans on each side for the purpose of cooling the air.

The houses of the poorer sort of people are built with clay, and thatched, but have convenient courts and gardens. There are besides these a great number of small cottages, built of clay and straw, or mats joined together, and fastened to poles.

Mechanics are not numerous in this city, not from want of skill in the people, but from the ill treatment of the omrahs, who, if they can meet with them, oblige them to work, and reward them according to their own discretion.

Many of the principal inhabitants are wealthy; and their most inestimable possessions are jewels, which they take particular care shall be faithfully transmitted to their posterity.

The Patans, a people who live at the foot of Mount Imaus, to which they fled from the power of the Moguls, rendered themselves formidable against Nadir Shah; and after the latter had abandoned Hindostan, they themselves invaded the country in its then weak and defenceless state.

The Mogul no sooner heard of the march of the Patans towards his empire, than he called his great officers of the army together, and holding in his hand, agreeably with the eastern custom, a betel, he offered it to that general who should instantly take on him the command of his forces, to oppose the designs of the enemy; but such was the pusillanimity or perfidy of his officers, that not one of them would accept the offer made by their sovereign; upon which the young prince, who was then only about 18 or 19 years of age, being much concerned for the distressed situation of his father, solicited that he might be suffered to accept the betel. The emperor, however, refused it him; but the officers, or omrahs, joining in the intreaty of the prince, as he had so voluntarily made the offer, the emperor consented, and vested him with the command.

Piqued at the presumption and boldness of the young prince, the military officers entered into a conspiracy to betray and give him up to the enemy; but the prince being happily apprized of their design, laid them all under arrest, threw them into prison, and then vigorously attacking the invaders of his country, repulsed and drove them entirely away.

The conspirators getting out from prison in the meantime, caused a report to be circulated, that the prince was slain in the battle, and entering the palace gates with violence, strangled the emperor, and propagated a fresh rumour, that the sovereign, on account of his son's death, had put an end to his own life. At this fatal crisis it was, that the young victorious prince was returning in all the pomp of war to Dehli, when hearing of the horrible catastrophe which had happened, and apprehending his own life to be in imminent danger, he had recourse to stratagem. He affected to believe that his father had died a natural death, or had killed himself; and, assuming a saquir's garb, declared he should from that moment renounce the world, and not trouble himself in the least about government.

In consequence of this resolution the conspirators went forth to meet him, and acknowledged him their lawful sovereign. But the prince, however, assured them he should not succeed to his father's crown, but should retire to some sequestered place for meditation, to which end he begged their attendance that evening in the palace, in order to consult on the election of an emperor. The omrahs attended, the guards seized their persons, and the young Mogul, Amet Shan, triumphed over both his foreign and domestic enemies.

The tranquillity of Dehli, however, was soon after more effectually disturbed; for the Patans, considerably reinforced, again attacked the city, conquered it, plundered it, and seized on the royal treasury. They then marched home with their spoil, which consisted

of almost all the riches left in the place after it was pillaged by Nadir Shah, and amounted to a very capital sum.

The Patan chief, when he halted at Lahor, drew a line from north to south, claiming a vast track of land to the west of that line, tributary to the empire of Hindostan; and leaving his son Timur there as generalissimo and governor of this extent of territory, he no farther molested Hindostan at that period. But as all the riches of the land were carried off, a general dejection ensued, the grounds lay fallow, and the manufacturers stood still: the people would not work for foreign plunderers, and want and famine were speedily felt. Thus did ambition oppress the fine region of Hindostan.

Many revolutions happened afterwards at Dehli, and, in the year 1757, Timur was placed on the imperial throne.

Agra is the capital of the province of that name. It was founded in the year 1566, by Eckbar, who called it Eckbarabat, and made it the metropolis of his empire. It is situated in 26 degrees north latitude, and 79 degrees east longitude, from London. It lies on the river Gemma, about 700 miles north-east of Surat, a journey which the caravans generally perform in nine weeks, and about 500 leagues north of Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coast. It stands in the middle of a sandy plain, which greatly adds to the heat of the climate. It is about eight miles long, but not near so broad, and no part is fortified but the palace. There are, however, generally a great number of soldiers here.

The houses are so situated as to command an agreeable prospect of the river. The buildings of the omrahs, and other great men, are of stone, and elegantly constructed. The great number of mosques, caravanferas, squares, baths, and reservoirs, intermixed with gardens, trees, and flowers, render this place extremely pleasant. The royal palace is a magnificent structure, situated in the form of a crescent on the banks of the river.

Around the palace are elegant gardens, with fine canals; and there are also extensive parks; so that the circumference of the whole is very considerable.

In 1638 here were no less than seventy mosques; and pilgrimages are at this time made to a famous mosque, in which there is the sepulchre of a saint 30 feet long, and near 16 broad.

Criminals pursued in order to be punished for offences fly directly to a mosque, and there find a certain shelter. Not even the emperor himself can hurt them after they have once flown to its sacred walls; for the attempt to punish, in this case, would be a direct violation of that profound respect and reverence due to such as have the title of saints.

In this city are 800 purifying baths; and near it stands that grand piece of architecture the mausoleum, which 20,000 men were twenty-two years in building.

The greatest part of the inhabitants of Agra are Mahometans and Moguls; and the city flourishes when honoured with a visit from the Great Mogul; but in general it has little to boast of with regard to commerce.

There is a very singular entertainment given by the Great Mogul to foreign ambassadors; it consists of wild beasts of various sorts fighting with each other, or combated by men, who engage in such dangerous enterprises to obtain the favour of the king. The manner of one of these fights, which was exhibited at Agra, when the Moguls kept their court there, is thus described. First two buffalos were let loose at each other, and afterwards a lion and a tyger, the two latter of which fought desperately for some time. These being taken away, the governor arose and said, "The Great Mogul's will and pleasure is, that if any valiant heroes are minded to give proofs of their valour, in fighting against the wild beasts with shield and sword, let them come forth: if they conquer, the Great Mogul will shew high favour to them." On this three persons entered the list, and engaged to undertake the combat; when the governor calling out, said, "None must

fight with any other weapon than sword and shield: those who have a dagger about them must throw it away, and fight fairly." A lion was then driven into the ring, where one of the three stood ready to encounter him. The lion immediately ran to him with the greatest ferocity, but the man defended himself a considerable time, till his arms growing weary, the lion laid one of his paws on the shield, and the other on his arm. The man finding himself unable to use his sword, and seeing the danger he was in, with his left hand drew out his Indian stiletto, and gave the lion so violent a stab in the throat, that he immediately let go his hold; after which he severed his body almost in two with his sword, and, pursuing his victory, effectually killed him. The Mogul, however, smiling, said to the conqueror, "You are a brave soldier; you have fought valiantly; but did not I command you to fight fairly, with sword and shield only? but, like a thief, you have stolen the lion's life with a stiletto." After this the king ordered the man's belly to be immediately ripped open, and that his body should be carried on the backs of elephants throughout the city; which sentence was immediately executed.

A tyger was then brought to the ring, which was encountered by a very strong man; but the tyger was so active, that he suddenly leaped on his antagonist, and tore him to pieces. A very small person then engaged the tyger, and, at the first encounter, cut off both his fore feet, which obliged him to fall: he then pursued his efforts, and soon killed him. On this the king calling to him, asked his name; to which he answered, Geiby. The king then ordered one of his servants to carry him a cloth of gold, who, when he delivered it to him, said, "Geiby, receive this coat, which the Mogul of his bounty hath sent." The conqueror received the coat with great humility, kissed it seven times, and afterwards holding it up, prayed to himself for the Mogul's prosperity; which done, he cried aloud, "God grant the Mogul to grow as great as Tamerlane, from whom he is derived; may he live seven hundred years, and his generation continue for ever." After he had thus expressed himself, he was conducted by an eunuch to the king, who, on his going away, said, "Be praised, Geiby Khan, for your heroic exploits. This name you shall keep for ever. I am your favourable lord, and you my vassal."

There is a very formidable nation on the north of Hindostan called the Scheiks, who can bring into the field 60,000 cavalry. They possess the whole province of Punjal, the greatest part of the Moultan, and the Sindi, and all the country towards Dehli, from Lahor to Serhend. These people have found means to free themselves from the chains of despotism, though encompassed by nations of slaves. During the calamities of the Mogul empire, their number increased considerably by refugees from different nations. It is affirmed that they have a temple with an altar, on which stands their code of laws, and next to it a sceptre and a dagger. To be admitted amongst them, nothing more is required than to swear an utter abhorrence of monarchy.

Cashmire, or Cassimire, which is about 76 miles in length, and 30 broad, is one of the most pleasant countries in all India: it is divided from Tartary by Mount Caucasus, and is situated in the northern part of the empire. This place, though inconsiderable as to its revenues, was uniformly held in the highest estimation by the emperors of Hindostan. Thither they repaired in the plenitude of their greatness, when the affairs of state would admit of their absence, and there they divested themselves of form, and all the oppressive ceremonies of state.

The royal manner of travelling to Cashmire was grand, though tedious and unweildy, and shewed, in an eminent degree, the splendour and magnificence of eastern potentates.

The temperature of the air here, elevated, as it is, so much above the adjoining country, together with the streams which continually pour from its mountains, enables

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enables the husbandman to cultivate with success the soil he appropriates to agriculture, whilst the labour of the gardener is amply repaid in the abundant produce of his fruit.

The rivers supply the inhabitants with almost every species of fish; the hills yield sweet herbage for the cattle; the plains are covered with grain of different kinds; and the woods are stored with variety of game. In this country, therefore, it is not to be wondered that the women are so singularly beautiful. The picture intended by nature would have been incomplete without them.

Adown their necks, more white than virgin snow,
Of softest hue, the golden tresses flow:
Their heaving breasts, of purer, softer white
Than snow hills glist'ning in the moon's pale light,
Except where cover'd by the sash, were bare;
And love itself smil'd soft and panted there.

In almost every other part of Asia the Scythian feature is to be traced in a greater or less degree. It is not so here. The Cashmireans seem a race distinct from all others in the east. Their persons are more elegant, and their complexions more delicate, and more tinged with red.

Where beauty is, there ever will be love; and love will always be attended by poetry and music. Thus we find the Cashmireans cultivate those arts with extraordinary success; poetry in particular. No country of the east has produced more elegant effusions of imagination than Cashmire, nor has any been more celebrated in story or romance.

On the decline of the Mogul power in Hindostan, Cashmire felt some of the ravages of war. It is now, however, in peace, and the inhabitants are desirous of keeping it so. Industry, sprightliness, and goodfellowship, fill up the measure of their time. They gratefully return thanks to heaven for the blessings they enjoy. Their days are days of comfort, and their nights are crowned with tranquillity and repose.

To the north of Cashmire is the province of Lahor, situated in 32 degrees north latitude, which was subdued by the Patans. In this province are mosques, caravanferas, baths, pagodas, palaces, and gardens. There is, in particular, antique edifices here, once the residences of the Moguls, and on which are inscribed the exploits of many of those monarchs.

The province of Sindy, situated on the river Sind, is a very fruitful country. Here is a great plenty of cattle of all sorts, and numbers of tame and wild fowl. The province abounds in wheat, rice, and pulse. They never have a dearth, the Indus overflowing all the low grounds in April, May, and June, and leaving a fat slime that enriches the earth.

This country produces salt-petre, sal-ammoniac, borax, lapis-lazuli, lapis-turæ, assa-fœtida, lignum-dulce, bezoar, opoponax, and raw silk.

The natives manufacture both silk and cotton, as well as chintz, and very handsome counterpanes. They also make fine cabinets, lacquered, and inlaid with ivory. They export a great deal of butter, which is put into duppas, or jars, containing from 5 to 200 lb. weight. The quota of forces furnished from hence to the Mogul, is 4000 horse, and 8000 foot.

The established religion of the people is Mahomedanism. There are, however, ten Gentoos to one Mahomedan.

They have here a particular festival, called the Feast of Woolly, when both sexes meet, and dance to the sound of drums, pipes, and cymbals. The women distribute sweetmeats, and the men squirt oil at each other.

The capital of the province, called Tatta, is situated in a large plain; it is about three miles in length, and about one and an half in breadth. Here is a palace for the nabob, and a citadel. The citizens are particularly celebrated for making extraordinary handsome palanquins.

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Near the city are several very large and magnificent tombs, which contain the remains of some of the ancient monarchs of Sindy. The largest, which is in the form of a cupola, is about 30 feet in height, and 21 in diameter. It consists of the most beautiful variegated porphyry, polished in the most exquisite manner.

The province of Guzurat, or Cambaya, lies to the south of Sindy, and is rendered a peninsula by Cambaya bay on the south-east, and Sindy bay on the north-west. From north to south it extends about 300 miles, and from east to west about 400 miles.

Amadab is the chief city of Cambaya, and lies about 140 miles to the northward of Surat, in 23 degrees north latitude, and 72 degrees east longitude, from London. It stands in a most delightful plain, watered by the river Sabremetty, and is surrounded by a wall of brick and stone, flanked with round towers, forty feet high, and has twelve gates. The town, including its suburbs, is about four miles in length. It is so intermixed with gardens and groves, that it has a most pleasing and rural aspect at a distance; and has upwards of 20 towns, and near 300 villages under its jurisdiction. One of the villages, called Serquech, is distinguished for the tombs and monuments of the ancient kings of Cambaya, or Guzurat.

The city of Cambaya is situated in 23 deg. north latitude, at the bottom of a gulph of the same name. It is about two leagues in circumference, and has very extensive suburbs, exclusive of fine gardens: the streets are spacious, and the houses well built with brick. The English and Dutch have factories here; though great part of the trade is removed to Surat; on which account the city is but thinly inhabited. It is surrounded by a brick wall, and has several sepulchres, besides a stately castle for the nabob.

The Banian inhabitants here shew a particular indulgence to monkies, which swarm, and are very mischievous. Originally there was an hospital for animals in this place, and the ruins of it are still visible. In the country are prodigious numbers of peacocks, which the natives catch after the birds have retired to rest. The flesh of the young ones is white, and the taste of it somewhat like that of a turkey.

The tide in the bay of Cambaya runs with such amazing rapidity, that it is said to exceed the pace of the swiftest animal.

Surat is a great commercial city situated in the province of Guzurat, on the river Tapta, a short distance from the ocean. The streets of this city are irregularly laid out, though wide at bottom. The shops have rather a mean appearance, the chief traders keeping their commodities in warehouses. Here are, however, a great number of very good buildings.

The building of this city was begun about the middle of the last century, and in a few years became a very considerable place. It is said to contain about 200,000 inhabitants.

Before the English East India Company possessed Bombay, the president and council managed their affairs at Surat, where a factory, which had been established there, was still continued, after the presidency was removed to Bombay. This factory had received from the Mogul government many valuable immunities; and Persians, Moguls, Indians, Arabs, Arminians, Jews, and Europeans, all resorted to Surat, where money was easily obtained, and bills of exchange were to be had for every market in India. Bags of money, ricketed and sealed, would circulate for years, without being weighed or counted; such was the honesty of the traders. Fortunes were proportionable to the ease and readiness with which they were to be obtained by commerce; and a fortune of 200,000l. was common.

In hot weather the principal people retire into the country; and the English factory have a very pleasant garden, kept in the most regular order.

This place abounds with all kinds of provisions; the soil of the country is extremely fertile, and produces the finest wheat in India. Here are great numbers of antelopes,

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antelopes, and some deer, with a great plenty of wild fowl.

The Moors, who have the government entirely in their own hands, tolerate all religions. When they take an European into their service, they never make any enquiry about his religion, or wish him to become a profelyte.

In the year 1664 Surat was plundered by Raja Savagi, who carried off no less than 1,200,000l. The plunder would have been much more considerable, had not the English and Dutch avoided the depredation, by having placed their richest commodities in the castle, which was out of the rajah's reach: they had, besides, well fortified their factories; so that the plunderer thought it prudent to retire, without attempting to attack them.

In consequence of the above loss, the inhabitants built walls round the city: not, however, that this precaution was attended with the advantages expected; for the English, in 1686, stopped all the ships that were fitted out at Surat for the several seas; and this oppression continuing a considerable time, Surat was deprived of almost every branch of commerce that was not its own immediate property.

However, notwithstanding these and other misfortunes, Surat is at this time a flourishing city. Of the produce of the manufactures of Guzurat, which are deposited in warehouses, a considerable part is carried into the inland countries, and the rest to all parts of the globe. The commodities most commonly known are blue linens, white linens, blue and white checks, printed callicos, silk and cotton stuffs, gauzes, shawls, and dutties. Surat receives in exchange for her exports great quantities of spices from the Dutch; iron, lead, cloth, cochineal, and hard-wares, from the English; silk from Bengal and Persia; masts and pepper from Malabar; slaves and perfumes from Arabia; teas, sugars, camphire, quicksilver, and toys, from China; and gums, dried fruits, pearls, and copper, from Persia. The manufacturers here have generally their work bespoke by the wholesale merchants; and this being the only sea-port of any importance in the Mogul's dominions that the Europeans do not possess, the inland trade employs great numbers of caravans for the distribution of the articles imported; and a continual intercourse is preserved from hence with Bombay, both by sea and land. The governor of Surat, who, in the administration of public justice, attends personally in the durbar, presides with great state, and decides on all actions of a civil and criminal nature.

Bisnagar, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, and which is about 200 miles to the east of Carwar, stands on the summit of a high mountain, and is surrounded by no less than three walls.

SECTION IX.

English Possessions and Settlements in the East Indies. Account of the Cruelties exercised on the English in the Black Hole at Calcutta.

THE province of Bengal is well known by giving its name to the greatest gulph in Asia, which separates the two peninsulas of the Indies. It is bounded by Asem and Araccan on the east, by several provinces belonging to the Great Mogul on the west, by hideous rocks on the north, and by the sea on the south. It is upwards of 240 leagues from east to west, and is deemed the most fertile country in India for a variety of valuable articles, such as sugar, silk, gum-lack, salt-petre, rice, opium, pepper, fruits, &c. The greatest part of the Bengal silk is produced in the territory of Cossimbuzar, where the silk-worms are reared and fed in the same manner as in other places; but the natural heat of the climate hatches and brings them to perfection at all times of the year. Considerable quantities of silk and cotton stuffs are manufactured here, and circulated through part of Asia.

The English East India Company's forces established in Bengal are very considerable; and the whole kingdom may be said, in a great measure, to be entirely under their rule and guidance; as the Subah, and the other rajas and princes, can only act under their controul.

A late writer gives the following account of a review of the company's troops in the presence of the Great Mogul.

"On a great holiday among the Mahometans, by desire of the Great Mogul, the English troops were ordered out to be reviewed by him: but it appeared very extraordinary that he did not take the least notice of any thing, or even look on the troops while they were going through their evolutions: if he did, it was with an eye askant, much practised by the Mussulmen. It seems it is inconsistent with dignity to appear to observe. All the trappings of dignity were displayed upon this occasion. The Mogul himself was on an elephant richly covered with embroidered velvet, the howder magnificently lacquered and gilded; and his sons were likewise on elephants. The plain was almost covered with his attendants: the officers of his court, their servants, their servants servants, seapoys, peaders, &c. &c. did not amount to less than 1500 people. All, except the seapoys, were, according to custom, dressed in white jammers and turbans. The principal people were on horseback, and well mounted. The train was increased by a great number of state elephants, state palanquins, and led horses richly caparisoned. The gilding of the howders and palanquins, the gold stuffs of the bedding and cushions, the silver and gold ornaments, the tassels and fringe of various colours, some of them even mixed with small pearls, the rich umbrellas, trappings of the horses, and all together, glittered in the sun, and made a most brilliant appearance."

Patna, which is situated in the Upper Ganges, is thought to be the most famous place in the universe for the cultivation of opium; but it is far inferior in its strength to that made in Syria and Persia. The Indians in general are exceeding fond of it; though its use has been prohibited by the most severe penal laws. In the neighbouring islands, however, it is consumed in great quantities. They not only chew it, but intermix it with their tobacco when they smoak, which frequently intoxicates them even to a degree of insanity, and prompts them to commit outrages of the most prejudicial tendency.

Patna is the capital of the territory of the same name, and one of the largest cities in India. The English have a capital factory here, at which is bought up immense quantities of opium and salt-petre.

Dacca is situated in 24 degrees north latitude. The soil is rich, the situation fine, and to its market are brought the richest commodities of India and Europe. It receives considerable advantages from its cottons, from which are produced striped and worked muslins, more valuable in their texture than those made in any other part of India.

The factory of Fort William, at Calcutta, belongs to the English East India Company, and is the most capital settlement they possess on the continent of India, being the residence of their governor-general, who is assisted by a supreme council, of which he is president, and a board of trade. It is situated on the river Hughley, the most westerly part of the Ganges. Here are a great number of store-houses, magazines, and an hospital. Here is also a good garrison of soldiers. All kinds of provisions are very cheap at this place; tho' the air of Calcutta is unhealthy, the water brackish, the anchorage unsafe, and the neighbouring country affords but few manufactures; notwithstanding which, great numbers of the most wealthy merchants, invited by the prospect of security and liberty, have fixed their residence here.

In 1757 the Subah of Bengal, from motives of eastern haughtiness and despotism, invested Calcutta, which was then in a defenceless state. The governor, alarmed at

at the appearance of a very numerous army, abandoned the fort, and, with many of the chief inhabitants, repaired on board a vessel in the river. Mr. Holwell, however, who was second in command, assisted by a few intrepid officers, and a weak garrison, defended the place for some time, but was at length obliged to surrender; and the inhabitants, with the whole garrison, were all forced into a dungeon called the Black Hole, from which only 23, out of 146 persons, came out alive; the rest being suffocated by extreme heat.

The humane mind will easily paint to itself the most wretched situation of such a number of fellow-creatures crammed together in a cube of 18 feet, in a close sultry night, with scarce the faintest circulation of air. They had been but a few minutes confined, when every miserable captive fell into so violent a perspiration, as brought on a most raging thirst. They all stripped off their cloaths except Mr. Holwell and three other gentlemen; and a proposition was then made, that every man should sit down on his hams. This expedient was accordingly practised several times, and at each time many of the unhappy wretches, more weak than others, and who could not recover their legs when the word was given to rise, fell all along, and were instantly suffocated or trod to death. Repeated efforts had been made to force the door, but to no purpose. Before nine o'clock every man's perspiration and thirst was so excessive, that "water! water!" was the general cry; and an old jemmantadar, among the guards, being moved with compassion at their extreme sufferings, ordered some skins of water to be brought.

The tumult, madness, transport! the fury and avidity, the confusion and violence, the lunacy and ravings of the miserable captives on the appearance of water, cannot possibly be conveyed to our readers in a more striking view, than by quoting the words of Mr. Holwell.

"The water appeared! (says Mr. Holwell.) Words cannot paint to you the universal agitation and raving the sight of it threw us into. We had no means of conveying it into the prison, but by hats forced through the bars; and thus myself, who stood close to the bars, and Messrs. Coles and Scott, supplied our fellow sufferers as fast as possible. But those who have experienced intense thirst, or are acquainted with the cause and nature of this appetite, will be sufficiently sensible it could be no more than a momentary alleviation: the cause still subsisted. Though we brought full hats within the bars, there ensued such violent struggles and frequent contests to get at them, that before they reached the lips of any one, there would be scarcely a tea-cup full left in them. These supplies, like sprinkling water on fire, only served to feed and raise the flame.

"O, my dear friend! how shall I give you a conception of what I felt at the cries and ravings of those in the remoter parts of the prison, who could not entertain a probable hope of obtaining a drop, yet could not divest themselves of expectation, however unavailing! and calling on me by the tender considerations of friendship and affection, and who knew they were really dear to me! Think, if possible, what my heart must have suffered at seeing and hearing their distress, without having it in my power to relieve them! for the confusion now became general and horrid. Many forced their passage from the further part of the prison, and pressing down those who were too weak to withstand them, trampled them to death."

Mr. Holwell, from nine to near eleven, thus stood at the bars of the window, supplying the poor creatures with water, and was almost pressed to death. His two companions, and Mr. Parker, who had forced himself into the window, were really so; as were Messrs. Baillie, Jenks, Reveley, Law, Buchanan, Simpson, and several others who lay dead at his feet.

Mr. Holwell now calling out to his fellow prisoners, and begging, as the last instance of their regard, they would remove the violent pressure on him, and suffer him to leave the window, they gave way, and he, with

great difficulty, got into the middle of the prison, where the throng was less by the many that were dead, and by others who flocked to the windows; for by this time they had water also at another window.

In the prison there was a platform, raised between three and four feet from the floor, and open underneath. Upon this platform Mr. Holwell lay down among many dead bodies, hoping here speedily to breathe his last: but, alas! he had not lain many minutes before he was seized with a most violent pain in his breast, and palpitation of the heart, attended with a difficulty of breathing, and an increasing excessive thirst. Unable to bear these united pains, he made a vigorous effort to get to a window opposite to him, and gaining the third rank at it, with one hand seized the bars, and by that means gained a second. In a few moments the air from the window relieved the pain in his breast, as well as the palpitation and difficulty of breathing; but his thirst was as great as ever. He got some water; but this increasing, instead of abating his thirst, he contented himself with sucking into his mouth the perspiration from his shirt sleeves, and catching large drops as they fell from his face.

"Whilst I was at the window (says Mr. Holwell) I was observed by one of my miserable companions on the right of me, in the expedient of allaying my thirst by sucking my shirt sleeves, upon which he took the freedom to rob me from time to time of a considerable part of my store; though, after I detected him, I began upon that sleeve he was making free with, and our mouths and noses often met in the contest. This plunderer I found afterwards was a worthy young gentleman in the service, Mr. Lushington, one of the few who escaped from death, and since paid me the compliment of assuring me, he believed he owed his life to the many comfortable sucks he had from my sleeves."

About half after eleven, the majority of the surviving prisoners were in an outrageous delirium. Every possible abuse of the subah, and every insult against the guard, that could be thought of or spoken, in order to provoke them to fire into the prison, were repeatedly practised to no kind of effect. Indeed, even before nine o'clock, many insults were offered to the guard, to provoke them to fire.

"I need not, my dear friend, (says Mr. Holwell,) ask your commiseration, when I tell you, that in this plight, from half an hour after eleven, till near two in the morning, I sustained the weight of a heavy man, with his knees on my back, and the pressure of his whole body on my head; a Dutch serjeant, who had taken his seat on my left shoulder, and a black Christian soldier bearing on my right; all which nothing could have enabled me to support, but the props and pressure equally sustaining me all around. The two latter I frequently dislodged by shifting my hold on the bars, and driving my knuckles into their ribs; but my friend above stuck fast, and, as he held by two bars, was immovable.

"The repeated trials and efforts I made to dislodge this insufferable encumbrance on me, at last quite exhausted me; and towards two o'clock, finding I must quit the window, or sink where I was, I resolved on the former, having borne, truly for the sake of others, infinitely more for life, than the best of it is worth.

"In the rank close behind me was an officer of one of the ships, whose name was Carey, and who behaved with much bravery during the siege, (his wife, a fine woman, country born, would not quit him, but accompanied him into the prison, and was one who survived.) This poor wretch had been long raving for water and air. I told him I was determined to give up life, and recommended his gaining my station. On my quitting, he made an attempt to get my place, but was prevented.

"Poor Carey expressed his thankfulness, and said he would give up life too: but it was with the utmost labour we forced our way from the window, (several in the inner ranks appeared dead, standing, unable to fall by

by the throng and pressure around.) He laid himself down to die; and his death, I believe, was very sudden; for he was a short, full, sanguine man. His strength was great; and I imagine, that had he not retired with me, I should never have been able to force my way. I was at this time sensible of no pain, and little uneasiness. I found a stupor coming on apace, and laid myself down by that gallant old man, the Rev. Mr. Jervas Bellamy, who laid dead with his son the lieutenant, hand in hand. When I had lain here some time, I still had reflection enough to suffer some uneasiness in the thought that I should be trampled upon when dead, as I myself had been obliged to trample upon others. With some difficulty I raised myself, and gained the platform a second time, where I presently lost all sensation. The last trace of sensibility that I have been able to recollect after my laying down, was my fast being uneasy about my waist, which I untied, and threw from me. Of what passed in this interval, to the time of my resurrection from this hole of horror, I can give you no account.

"When the day broke, and no intreaties whatever could prevail to get the prison-door opened, it occurred to a gentleman, (I think Mr. Secretary Cook) to make a search for me, in hopes I might have influence enough to gain a release from this scene of misery. Accordingly Messrs. Lushington and Walcot undertook the search, and by my shirt discovered me on the platform, from whence they took me, and, imagining I had some signs of life, brought me towards the window I had first possession of. But as life was equally dear to every man, and the stench from the dead bodies was intolerable, no one would give up his station in or near the window; so they were obliged to carry me back again. Soon afterwards Captain Mills, who was in possession of a seat in the window, had the humanity to resign it. I was again brought by the same gentlemen and placed in the window.

"At this juncture the Subah, who had received an account of the havock which death had made amongst us, sent one of his jemmantadars to enquire whether the chief survived. They shewed me to him, telling him I had the appearance of life still remaining, and that it was possible I might recover, if the door was soon opened. This answer being returned to the Subah, an order came immediately for our release, it being then near six in the morning."

Mr. Holwell then proceeds to relate, that from the number of dead bodies that were piled up against the door, which opened inwards, there was no possibility of opening it till the dead were removed; and that this work took up twenty minutes.

About a quarter after six o'clock, the remains of 146 souls, being only 23, came alive from the dungeon, among whom was Mrs. Carey. The dead bodies were dragged out of the prison by the soldiers, and thrown into a ditch.

The survivors were all set at liberty, except Mr. Holwell, Mr. Court, Mr. Walcot, Mr. Burdet, and Mrs. Carey; the first was ordered into the custody of an officer; and the last was detained on account of her personal beauty, to be the further victim of a fresh tyranny, the lust of some great officer.

Mr. Holwell was in a high fever when he came out of the prison, and was in this condition taken before the Subah; as he was unable to stand, they carried him to the tyrant, who said to him, "I hear there is treasure to a very considerable amount secreted in the fort; if you do not discover where it is, you must expect no mercy." Mr. Holwell assured him that he did not know of any treasure; and the Subah, finding no intelligence could be got, ordered Mhir Muddon, the general of his household troops, to take Mr. Holwell into his custody.

It was the voluntary opposition made by Mr. Holwell, after the governor (Drake) had quitted the fort, that so particularly enraged the Subah; and this led him to believe, that there must certainly be some con-

siderable treasure hidden; for Mr. Holwell, it was imagined, would not have undertaken a work of such danger, had he not been actuated to it by very interested principles.

Mr. Holwell and his companions were conveyed in a hackry to the camp, and there loaded with fetters; they were lodged in the tent of a Moorish soldier, which was so small, that they were under a necessity of lying, ill as they were, half in, and half out of the tent, during a most disagreeable and rainy night. The following day, however, their fever fortunately coming to a crisis, boils broke out on their bodies, and the day ensuing they were removed to the coast, from whence they were soon sent by sea to Muxadabad, to be disposed of as the Subah should think proper, who was expected to return to that capital from Calcutta.

On their arrival at Muxadabad, after a voyage of thirteen days, their boils had become running sores, and the irons on their legs had consumed their flesh nearly to the bone. Mr. Holwell now sent a letter to Mr. Law, chief of the French factory, with an account of their miserable situation, and Mr. Law was so humane as to send them every necessary they wanted.

They landed on the 7th of July, in the afternoon, and after walking some considerable way as a public spectacle, were placed upon a shed, not far from the viceroy's palace, where they were relieved with great humanity by the French and Dutch chiefs, as well as by the Arabian merchants.

On the 18th of July the Subah arrived, and on the 25th the poor prisoners were led to his palace to know their future fate; but it happened that no audience could be given them on that day: and in the evening the Subah's grandmother interceded for their restoration to freedom, at a feast celebrated in honour of the viceroy's return home.

The next morning, very early, the unhappy sufferers waiting the Subah's passing to his palace of Mooteejel, and paying him, as soon as he came near them, the usual homage, he cast his eyes on them with an appearance of some compassion, and ordered their irons to be knocked off; he at the same time ordered two of his officers to conduct them wherever they should be inclined to go, and charged them to prevent any insult being offered to their persons.

As soon as Mr. Holwell and his friends obtained their discharge, they took boat, and arrived at Corce-madad, a Dutch settlement; whence they embarked, and sailed for England.

Messrs. Watson and Clive, soon after this dreadful catastrophe, made their appearance before Calcutta, and entirely reduced the place. The Subah, now more enraged than ever, led his army towards Calcutta, and encamped within about a mile of the town, when Colonel Clive attacked him so vigorously, that the viceroy was forced to retreat, after having sustained a considerable loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

The town of Calcutta is situated on the banks of the river Hugly, which is an arm of the Ganges. It is very large, but appears rather uncouth to the eye from the strange irregularity of its buildings. Every person who erects a house, pleases his own fancy with respect to the manner of the edifice, without paying any attention to the uniformity of the town; so that large and small, elegant and mean, are blended together. Near the centre of the town is the old fort, in which is the place of confinement called the Black Hole, where, as before mentioned, the unhappy English suffered the most wretched punishment by order of the Nabob Serajah Dowlah.

About a mile from the town, by the side of the river, is the new fort, which is a very handsome and strong building. It is surrounded with walls, and exceeding spacious, containing magazines for stores, barracks for soldiers, and elegant apartments for the respective officers; besides which, there are houses for the accommodation of the engineers and other officers who reside at Calcutta.

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Various VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS of the ASIATIC ISLANDS.
1. Blanking. 2. Gogo-Tengue. 3. Sage. 4. Parons. 5. Pepper.

In the environs of Calcutta are several beautiful villages, which contain many elegant buildings, the country residences of English gentlemen, who retire here, particularly in the hot season, to enjoy the benefit of the air, which is cooler, and much more wholesome, than in town.

Of the many diseases caused by the heat of the climate, the most fatal is that called the *pucker fever*, which carries off the person seized with it in a very short space of time. It is said that less women die here, in proportion, than men, which is attributed to the abstemiousness of the former, and the intemperance of the latter.

Madras, or Fort St. George, or Madraspatan, (signifying, in the Indian language, the town of Madras,) is a capital settlement of the English in India, and is situated in 80 degrees east longitude, and 13 degrees north latitude. It is near 4800 miles east of London; and the sun rises and sets six hours sooner at Madras than with us.

This place is by no means convenient; for the ocean beats with prodigious violence against the shore, and it is subject to inundations from a salt water river behind it; nor is there a drop of fresh water to be got within a mile of it. It has a fort and garrison, and in the middle of the fort is the governor's house, which is a handsome stone building.

In the town are several handsome streets, with good houses. The Europeans inhabit what they call the White Town, which forms an oblong square of about a mile long, surrounded by walls. The English church here is a very pretty structure, with an handsome altar, a carved gallery, and an organ.

The Black Town, occupied by Armenians, Indians, Portuguese, and others, is near two miles in circumference, and encompassed by a very thick brick wall, fortified in the modern manner. The streets are wide, but the houses mean. It is a place of considerable wealth, however, and very populous. In this town there is an Armenian church, as well as several small pagodas, to which belong great numbers of singing girls.

The trade of this colony is chiefly in the hands of Armenians and Jews. The articles the English deal in are diamonds, chints, callicos, &c.

Madras was taken by the French in 1746, but restored the following peace. In 1758 they attacked it again under General Lally, but were repulsed by the forces under the Generals Lawrence and Draper.

Some years since it was computed that the towns and villages belonging to Fort St. George contained 80,000 people, 5000 of whom were Europeans.

Trade is carried on from hence to all parts eastward of the Cape of Good Hope: but the largest ships use the Mocha, Persia, and Surat markets, with Bengal and China commodities, and touch on the voyage for pepper, cocoa, drugs, &c. on the Malabar coast. The European goods, which fetch the best market prices here, are wines, beer, ale, cyder, cheese, gold and silver lace, worsted and thread stockings, lead, flint ware, looking-glasses, &c. &c.

The nabob of Arcot has an elegant villa at a little distance from Madras, supported by pillars instead of walls. The apertures of colonades admit the light in lieu of windows, and open porticos serve the purpose of doors. The stile of architecture is thus elegantly airy and open, and the consequent coolness renders it a luxurious retreat in a climate so exceeding sultry.

Gingi, or Gingee, which is encompassed with mountains, consists of two towns, called Great and Little Gingee, both of which are surrounded by a wall and five lofty rocks; and on the top of each rock is a strong fortress. From east to west these towns are separated by a wall fortified with cannon, which one of the five rocks defends as a citadel.

Fort St. David is a colony and fort belonging to the English, situated four or five leagues to the south of Pondicherry. In the year 1686 this place was bought

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for the consideration of 90,000 pagodas, by the governor of Fort St. George, for the East India Company, and is esteemed a situation of great consequence to the English. In 1758 it was taken by the French forces under the command of General Lally, who blew up the fortifications; but fortune afterwards turning her back upon the victors, they were forced to give up to the English most of their possessions. Great quantities of chints, callicos, and muslins, are manufactured here.

Tanjore (the capital of the kingdom of Tanjore) is situated in 11 degrees north latitude. This kingdom is bounded by the ocean on the east, by Trichinopoly on the west, by the river Coleroon on the north, and on the south by the territories of two great personages, stiled polygars, or lords. The English have a fort, with land belonging to it, near the mouth of the Coleroon.

When General Lally made his appearance before this place in 1741, he privately erected batteries at the very time he was pretending to commence a negotiation with the prince, and even fired upon the town; when the inhabitants, inflamed with a just revenge, attacked the French with such spirit and vigour, as to drive them entirely away.

The fort possessed by the English at the mouth of the river Coleroon, and which is named Davecotah, was granted to them by the king of Tanjore.

Bombay is an island seven miles in length, and about 20 miles in circumference, situated in 18 deg. 41 min. north latitude, on the coast of Decan, and forms a commodious bay. The harbour will hold 1000 sail of shipping. This is one of the English East India Company's principal settlements in India, being well fortified, and having a good garrison.

Bombay formerly belonged to the Portuguese, who, in 1660, gave it up to King Charles II. on his espousing the Infanta of Portugal; and the king afterwards gave it to the East India Company.

They have wet weather at Bombay about four months in the year, which is commonly preceded by a very violent thunder storm. During this season most of the trading vessels are laid up. The rains begin about the latter end of May, and end in September, when the black merchants hold a festival, gilding a cocoa-nut, which they consecrate, and commit to the waves.

The town or city of Bombay is surrounded by a wall and ditch a mile long, and has a good castle. The land is laid out principally in groves of cocoas, rice fields, and onion grounds. This place is a great mart for cotton for the English trade to China.

There is not a place in the world where there is a greater medley of different nations than in the presidency of Bombay. This region being conveniently situated for commerce by sea with all maritime nations, and having also a communication by land with the Persian empire, here are, besides Europeans of all countries, Turks, Persians, Arabians, Armenians, and a mixed race, the vilest of their species, descended from the Portuguese, and the outcasts from the Gentoo religion.

There is a race of mortals in this country, that they call Caffrees, who are slaves to every other tribe. They have black woolly hair, and came originally from Caffria, in the south promontory of Africa. They are sensible of their inferiority, in education at least, if not in nature, to the Moors, Hindoos, and Christians, and seem contented with their situation. They are so habituated to slavery, that they seem to have lost all desire of freedom, and to be happier in the service of a good master, who is their protector, than they would be in a state of independence.

The natives of this country are more slim, and generally of a shorter stature, than Europeans. It is a curious sight to see their children running about naked, and speaking by the time they are half a year old. It must be astonishing to a traveller, on his visit to these parts, to be saluted by those little figures, who, after giving him the saalam, (putting their hands to their foreheads,

foreheads, and bowing to the ground,) will ask for something; for all the children of the lower castes are great beggars, and they go stark naked until they are nearly at the age of puberty. Their mental faculties, as well as their bodily powers, arrive much sooner at maturity than those of Europeans, nor do they so soon decay as is commonly believed.

Children are all taught reading and arithmetic in the open air. They learn to distinguish their letters, and the figures they use in their arithmetic, by forming them with their own hands, either in the sand, or on boards.

In Bombay, where people of so many different nations are collected together, there is a kind of language which is composed of the most common words of the language of each nation, and of natural signs. Conversation is carried on, in a great measure, by gesticulation, pointing, and various distortions of countenance. This affords to a stranger a ludicrous spectacle; and as the Hindoos speak in a very loud tone of voice, it appears disagreeable to strangers, before custom (that reconciles us to every thing) renders it familiar. Yet their voices are not harsh, but naturally sweet and melodious.

The trade of a potter is an excellent one in this country; for the Gentoos never use the same pot or plate twice; that would be pollution: but as to plates, their place is generally supplied by the broad and tough leaves of banian trees, and they use no spoons. The carnivorous appetites of Europeans shock them; for, the warriors excepted, the Gentoos eat no flesh meat. Certain other castes are allowed to eat fish. Of the English, particularly, they say, shaking their heads, "Ah! Englishmen eat every thing, fight every thing."

The chief Islands near Bombay are Butcher's Island, Elephanta, and Salfette. The first is so called, from great numbers of cattle being kept on it for the use of Bombay; and the second has its name from the enormous figure of an elephant cut in stone, and which, at a distance, appears as if alive, the stone being exactly of the colour of that quadruped.

Salfette lies to the northward of Bombay, being about 26 miles in length, and 9 or 10 broad. Here is a ruined place called Canara, where are several caverns in rocks, which considerably gratify the curiosity of such Europeans as visit them. The soil of this island is extremely fertile, and abounds with great plenty of game. It was originally comprehended under the regality of Bombay, and of consequence became the property of the English crown when Bombay was given to Charles II. but the Portuguese defrauded them of it; though it is so connected with Bombay, that the people thereof cannot subsist without it, having almost all their provisions from it. The Portuguese, however, lost it by an invasion of the Marattas; and they ceded it to the English at the conclusion of a peace with them a few years back.

The Maratta nation are equally bred to arms and agriculture. The use of the former they have learnt of the Europeans; though they depend greatly on targets, which will turn the ball of a pistol, and even that of a musket, from some distance. If their muskets are but very indifferent, their swords are excellent, and they use them with great execution. Their targets are quite round, and rise in the center nearly to a point. The horses on which they ride are small, active, and will go through any fatigue.

We shall now give an account of the celebrated pirate, Konna Ji Angria, whose dominions were taken from him by the English.

This notorious and common disturber, about a century ago, from the humble condition of a private individual among the Marattas, rose to the elevated sphere of admiral, and served in the wars against the Mogul. Being, in consequence of his services, appointed governor of the little Island of Severndroog, he took the liberty to seize many vessels that he had once the com-

mand of, and became a very formidable enemy in time. He took several of the sea-ports belonging to his countrymen, and extended his depredations gradually near 60 leagues along the coast.

The successors of this man, by a series of good fortune on their side, became at length so powerful, and with their power so daring, that they seized not only the vessels of their countrymen, but likewise all European and Moorish ships that they met with; so that the East India Company were under the necessity of taking measures to crush these common robbers. No attempts against them, however, succeeded till the year 1755, when Commodore James, with a small fleet of six ships under his command, levelled six of Angria's forts with the ground, and destroyed several ships that were riding in his harbours.

It is here to be observed, that the successors of the first pirate, Angria, were all of the same family and name.

In February 1756, Rear Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive anchored in the road of Geriah (the strongest place belonging to Angria) and summoned the fort to surrender; but the answer was, that the fort would be defended to the last extremity. Next day, however, some relations of Angria came to the admiral, desiring the indulgence of a few days to consider upon this important matter. This was absolutely refused; and in the afternoon of the same day the fleet weighed, and stood in for Geriah harbour. The engagement commenced about two o'clock, and about seven Mr. Clive left the ships with the forces under his command; landed at a convenient place, eastward of the fort, and was soon joined by a considerable Maratta reinforcement.

The bomb vessels threw shells continually into the fort till the next day's dawn; and on this day a second summons was sent to the fort to surrender. The answer was, that the fort would be defended.

A general attack now began, and about two in the afternoon, a magazine in the fort blowing up, a flag of submission was displayed about four.

Upon this, the admiral demanded immediate admittance into the fort; but the messenger whom the admiral had sent returning with an answer by no means satisfactory, the attack was renewed, and they then soon hung out a flag of surrender.

Mr. Clive, who had considerably annoyed the enemy by land, then came on board the admiral's ship, in company with an officer from the fort, with articles of capitulation, which were agreed to, and Geriah became possessed by the English, with very little loss, there not being above twenty men killed.

Angria, who had prudently escaped from the fort before it was attacked, was now totally ruined. A prodigious quantity of stores and ammunition, rupees to the amount of 100,000 pounds sterling, and effects to the value of about 30,000 more, were found in the fort.

Angria left in the fort his mother, his wife, and two children; and a very affecting scene passed between these captives and the admiral, as the reader will find in the following quotation from Captain Ives's voyage to India.

"The admiral, with great humanity," says Mr. Ives, "visited these unfortunate captives. Upon his entrance they all made a reverential bow, even to the very ground, shedding many tears. The admiral bade them be comforted, promising them that they should suffer no injury. Angria's mother, strongly affected, cried out, that the people had no king, the no son, her daughter no husband, the children no father." Mr. Watson replied, "he would be their father and their friend."

Upon this, the youngest child, about six years old, innocently taking the admiral's hand, cried, "Then you shall be my father." The admiral, overpowered by the sensations of the moment, turned aside to conceal the tears that were ready to start from his eyes. It was

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was his intention to settle these poor captives at Bombay; but they asked permission to remain at Geriah. Trichinopoly stands in a plain that was once encompassed by plenteous plantations of trees and opulent villas, but which now wears a much less pleasing aspect. The town is about four miles in circumference, fortified with a double wall, and defended by towers; it has a ditch near thirty feet wide. In this town there is a rock about 300 feet high, on the summit of which is a pagoda. Trichonopoly is the key of Tanjore and Madura, and gives them great influence. It was a principal scene of our military operations last war.

In the year 1753 the French made an attempt to take it by surprise; vainly surmising, that firing alone would terrify the garrison, they turned a couple of our 12 pounders on the battery against the town, having previously scaled the outer wall. They were, however, through the exertion of equal judgment and bravery, entirely repulsed, and upwards of 360 Europeans were made prisoners.

Madura, which was taken by the English in 1757, is the capital of the province of Madura, and is a large fortified town.

At Tellicherry the East India Company have a well defended factory. The town stands at the back of the fort, and has a stone wall round it. The religion of the place is that of the Gentoos; there are, however, some few black Christians who live protected by the factory. A fine deep purple opium is produced hereabout.

The English have also a factory with a fort and garrison at Anjengo, which is farther to the south.

SECTION X.

Possessions of the French in India.

THE capital of the French settlements in India is Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coast; it is a large handsome town, situated in 80 deg. 30 min. east longitude from London, and 12 deg. 20 min. north latitude. The streets are all regular, and the principal one not less than half a league long. The city is surrounded by a wall, and has 6 gates, 10 or 18 bastions, and upwards of 400 cannon mounted, exclusive of mortars, bombs, &c.

Pondicherry stands upon a low ground, and vessels cannot anchor nearer than within about half a league; even the canoes cannot come up to it by some way; so that the blacks convey persons and mercantile articles to the fleet in flat-bottomed boats.

The chief buildings in Pondicherry are, the house of the Governor, the Jesuit's house, and an elegant structure in the Company's gardens. The houses in common consist only of one story, as is usual in most of the towns of the province. The Gentoos generally sleep in their courts, or on the tops of their houses: these people toil hard in their respective professions, such as weaving, painting, &c. for about a penny per day, and their usual food is boiled rice; for the country, notwithstanding its natural dryness, produces great quantities of that necessary of life, owing principally to the unwearied industry of the Gentoos, who at proper distances dig wells in the fields for refreshing the ground.

The Mahometans are never animated by the laudable spirit of industry in the Gentoos, but are as indolent and lazy as the former are assiduous and careful.

The governor, when honoured with a visit from any great personage, is attended by three hundred peons, or foot-guards; and when he goes out on any public occasion, he is carried on a palanquin, the canopy of which is embellished with the most superb ornaments.

Pondicherry, which in the year 1693 was taken by the Dutch from the French, and restored to them at the peace of Ryswick, was, in 1751, taken by the English, but restored in 1763. It was again taken by the

English in October 1770, but restored to them by the peace in 1783.

Karical is an ancient city and settlement belonging to the French, and lies in 40 deg. 34 min. north latitude; about four leagues south of Tranquebar, and 25 south of Pondicherry. The town contains five spacious pagodas, nine lesser ones, four mosques, between six and seven hundred houses, and about five or six thousand people.

Tiroumale Rayan Patuam, which is under the jurisdiction of Karical, and lies to the south of it, is a large town, containing four large pagodas, near 30 lesser ones, four mosques, and about 500 brick houses, exclusive of 24 public inns for the accommodation of travellers.

Chandernagore, belonging to the French, is surrounded by a wall, and well fortified; it was, however, reduced by Messrs. Watson and Pocock, in conjunction with Colonel Clive. Chandernagore has rather the disadvantage of being rather exposed on the western side; but its harbour is excellent, and the air is as pure as it can be on the banks of the Ganges. Here is a very considerable manufacture of handkerchiefs and striped muslins: this, however, has not made Chandernagore the rival of Calcutta, whose immense opulence enables it to engage in the most extensive commercial undertakings.

SECTION XI.

Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Possessions in India.

THE principal place belonging to the Portuguese in India is Goa, situated upon an island about 12 miles in length and 6 in breadth, surrounded by a river of salt water falling into the ocean a few leagues below the town, and forming a most excellent harbour. It lies in 15 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 74 deg. 20 min. east long. from London. The houses, which are of stone, are spacious and handsome; and there are 27 churches and convents, besides a cathedral, a noble hospital, a house of inquisition, and other public buildings.

Two vessels sail annually from Macao to Goa, laden with china and other articles, that are rejected at Canton; the owners of which are generally Chinese merchants.

The island produces a great variety of excellent fruits, though but little corn; and here is a plenty of hogs and fowls.

Great homage is paid by the slaves of Goa to their superiors, who attend them with umbrellas to shelter them from the sun. The ladies wear rosaries of gold and silver, golden bracelets, diamond pendants, and pearl necklaces. They wear no stockings, but have very elegant slippers.

The chief food here is roots and fruits, with rice and bread. The poorer sort of people subsist upon boiled rice, with a little salt fish, or fruit pickled. Very little butcher's meat is eaten; for the flesh in general is lean and unwholesome.

The religion of the people here is that of the Romish church; and the Court of Inquisition (that infamous tribunal) proceeds with a most cruel rigour against such as are stiled heretics.

Diu, or Dio, is a city situated on an island that bears the same name in the Gulph of Cambaya; the island is three miles long, and two broad, and is divided from the continent by a narrow channel. The city is large, and surrounded with a stone wall well fortified; it has a very safe harbour, and was formerly a place of good trade: the harbour is defended by two strong castles on the land, and every approach on the sea side is prevented by prodigious rocks and cliffs.

The buildings in this city are superior in grandeur to those of most other cities in India, being principally built with free-stone and marble. The city stands on an easy ascent from the great castle, and has five or six

six fine churches, besides convents, elegantly adorned with paintings, &c. The churches form a most pleasing prospect from the sea, having their beautiful fronts towards it.

In 1670 Diu was attacked and plundered by the Muscat Arabs, who did it so much damage that it hath not to this day recovered its former splendor.

Meliapour, about three miles south of Fort St. George, was once the most considerable place on the Coromandel coast. The Portuguese raised it from the verge of ruin to a state of opulence and magnificence, but were driven from thence by the Moors, when it became subject to the king of Golconda, but was reduced by the French in 1666; the Dutch, however, in conjunction with the king of Golconda, about four years after, took it from the French; upon which the fortifications were entirely destroyed, and never repaired afterwards. The inhabitants are Gentoos, Portuguese, and Moors, and others of different nations.

Balicut, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is situated to the south of Tellicherry. It is surrounded by a brick wall: there are about 6000 brick houses, most of which have gardens.

Here all nations are admitted, though none have any sway. The sovereign is a Bramin; and this is almost the only throne in India that is filled by a person of the first class. He is stiled Samorin, or Emperor, and is the most potent of the Malabar princes.

No police is established here, and the trade, which is loaded with imposts, is almost entirely in the hands of a few of the vilest Moors in India. This was the first place at which the Portuguese landed in 1498, after their discovery of India.

Contiguous to the Prince's dominions is the country of the Raja of Sarimpatan; the natives of which are a civilized, just, and humane people; and it is said their country was never yet conquered.

Cochin, a city situated in a kingdom of the same name, lies in ten degrees north latitude. There are two towns of the name of Cochin, the Old and the New; the latter was built by the Portuguese, and had several very handsome houses, as well as churches and monasteries; many of which were destroyed by the Dutch, who took this place in the year 1662, assisted by the king of Cochin, who had been extremely ill used by the Portuguese.

The above monarch, at the time Cochin was taken from him by the Portuguese, had preserved his dominions, which have been repeatedly invaded by the natives of Travancor, a country extending from Cape Comoran to the frontiers of Cochin; and it is from necessity he dwells in the Old Town. His revenue is 144,000 livres, stipulated to be paid him by ancient capitulations, out of the produce of his customs.

The king of Cochin lives in the Old Town, which is situated on a river half a league from the sea, and has several pagodas.

In this place is a colony of industrious Jews, who are white men, and absurdly boast that their ancestors were settled here at the æra of the Babylonish captivity; they have, however, been certainly here a very considerable time. They have a synagogue, in which their records are preserved with great care.

Cananor is a considerable town in the kingdom of the same name, with a most commodious harbour, and is situated in 12 degrees north latitude. The Dutch have a fort here of great extent. This place was originally possessed by the Portuguese, from whom the Dutch took it in the year 1660. It is a very populous town, and inhabited principally by Mahometan merchants. The chief articles in trade here are pepper, ginger, cassia, ambergris, mirobolans, tamarinds, and precious stones.

At the bottom of the bay there is a large town independent of the Dutch, under the jurisdiction of a prince who can bring 20,000 men into the field.

Near Chandernagore is Chinsura, more generally known by the name of Dougli, where the Dutch have

a fort, but no other possession whatever, the territory round it depending on the government of the country.

To the north of Calcutta is Hugley. The Dutch have a factory here, erected in an open place, at a small distance from the river. It is defended by a strong fortress, and surrounded by a very deep ditch.

Saumelpour is a small place, but celebrated for its precious stones, which are not, as in other places, dug from mines, but found in the sands of the river. Great numbers of people are employed in searching for these valuable articles.

Bandel is a factory for the sale of women to the Moors and Dutch. It was formerly the chief seat of the Portuguese commerce; and there are some miserable wretches remaining, who employ themselves principally in the above shocking traffic, and are at the distance of about 80 leagues from the mouth of the Ganges.

Chaligan is a place where the Portuguese once established a sort of absolute or sovereign power, and formed an alliance with the robbers of different nations who took refuge here, and acknowledged no subordination to any prince whatever, not even to their own. The Mogul, however, finding them too troublesome to be borne with, sent a force against them, and totally extirpated them. The town has no considerable manufacture. It lies in 23 deg. north lat. near the mouth of the most easterly branch of the Ganges.

Tanquebar, a settlement on the coast of Coromandel, is claimed by the Danes. It is situated in 11 deg. 16 min. north lat. surrounded by a wall, and is about two miles in circumference. It was purchased of the king of Tanjore by the Danes in the year 1631. The streets are wide, and have a brick pavement on the sides. The habitations of the Danes, and other Europeans, are of brick and stone, but with only the ground floor. Those of the Indians are very mean.

The Danish missionaries here have a congregation which thrives, though vigorously opposed by the Popish missionaries. They have a school here for youth, who are instructed in the Protestant faith. They have also a printing-office and a paper-mill. The town is supposed to contain about 5000 inhabitants, and has a most agreeable prospect from the sea. It stood a six months siege in 1699, against the king of Tanjore's forces, assisted by the Dutch, and would, in all human probability, have been taken, had not Governor Pitt sent a reinforcement of English from Fort St. George to its relief.

The fondness for the manufactures of Coromandel, when it first began to prevail here, inspired the Europeans trading to the Indian Seas with a resolution of forming settlements there. The first colonies were established near the shore. Some of them obtained a settlement by dint of force. Most of them were formed with the consent of the sovereigns, and all were confined to a very narrow track of land. The boundaries of each were marked out by an hedge of thorny plants, which was their only defence. In process of time, however, fortifications were raised, the colonists increased, and each colony flourished in proportion to the prudence and opulence of the nation which founded it.

The greatest part of the trade of the coast of Coromandel is now in the hands of the Europeans: though for some time it was no object of their attention, being separated by inaccessible mountains from Malabar, where these bold navigators endeavoured to settle. Spices and aromatics, which principally engaged their views, were not to be found there. In short, civil dissensions had banished from it tranquillity, security, and industry. At this period the empire of Bishnagar, to which this extensive country was subject, was verging to ruin. The monarchs of that illustrious state falling gradually into an habit of withdrawing themselves from the sight of their people, and of leaving the care of government to their ministers and generals, the governors of dependent provinces threw off their subordination, and had assumed the prerogative of kings, just when the Europeans made their appearance upon the coast.

SECTION XII.

The Kingdom of GOLCONDA.

THIS kingdom extends 260 miles along the bay of Bengal, in the form of a crescent, and is about 200 miles in the broadest part from east to west. It has Bishnagar on the south, the mountains of Gata on the west, and those of Orixá and Baligate on the north. It is famous for its diamond mines; in some of which the diamonds lie scattered within a few fathoms of the earth's surface; and others are discovered in a mineral in the rocks, more than forty fathoms deep. The workmen dig into the rock, and then, by means of fire, soften the stone, and so proceed till they find the vein, which often runs two or three furlongs under the rock. All the earth is brought out, and, after great care bestowed on it, produces stones of a considerable size, but of different shapes.

In order to discover the situation of these stones, the workmen build a cistern of clay: on one side, towards the bottom, is a small aperture, which, when closed up, the earth containing the diamond is thrown into the cistern: water is then poured in to soften the earth, and afterwards drawn off by means of the small drain. When the cistern is clear from mud, the gravelly sand is critically searched, during sun-shine, for the diamonds, the lustre of the stones themselves assisting the searchers in their endeavours to find them.

The superintendants are obliged to look after the workmen with the utmost vigilance, lest they should be tempted to embezzle any of the precious articles which they are employed to discover. One of them was once detected in putting a small stone into the corner of his eye; and there have been many instances of their swallowing the diamonds.

All diamonds that exceed the weight of a pagoda are the king's property; but all of an inferior weight appertain to the merchants.

The largest diamond ever found was presented to the Mogul: it weighed 279 carats, each carat being four grains.

There have been attempts to make artificial diamonds, but with no degree of success, the best of them falling very short of the genuine ones.

The real diamond is the hardest substance that hath hitherto been discovered: when polished it is perfectly clear, admirably pellucid, and exceeds all other precious stones in the splendor of its rays, and the lustre reflected from its surfaces: but in the dark it does not shine, as it hath no light of itself.

The chief harbour of this kingdom is Masulipatan; and the country extends from the gulph of Visapour. It once formed part of a very extensive empire, subject to the emperor of Bishnagar, and comprehended nearly the whole of the peninsula, from the northern extremity of Orixá to Cape Comorin.

The chief city is Golconda, situated about 238 miles west of Masulipatan, and about 200 north-west of Madras, in a good soil, and salubrious air. It is surrounded with stone walls and deep ditches, divided into tanks or ponds of clear water. It has many grand mosques, in which are the tombs of the kings of Golconda. It suffered greatly by an inundation in the year 1614, when about 3000 houses were washed away, and some thousands of people and cattle perished.

Masulipatan is situated on the north side of the river Nagundi, which separates Golconda and Bishnagar, in 81 deg. 40 min. east longitude from London, and 16 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It was, towards the close of the last century, one of the most thriving towns in India, and the most advantageous of the English factories. The Danes, Portuguese, and Dutch, had also factories here, and the customs amounted to 14,000 pagodas per annum, it being the most celebrated mart for callicoes, indigos, diamonds, and other precious stones. The number of inhabitants were computed to be at that

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time about 200,000. It is now, however, only a Dutch factory for chints. It is surrounded by a wall and ditch, and towards the land side is a deep morass, over which is a bridge of wood.

The French were in possession of this city in the year 1759, under the Marquis de Conflans; but it was taken from them by the English forces under the command of Colonel Forde. Near the bar the waves of the sea are so rapid as to make a noise like the cataracts of the Nile, and sometimes have almost as great a fall. The heat here, especially in May, is so intense, that people dare not stir out of their houses in some parts of the day.

The English have a factory at Pettipoly, or Pentapooli, between 20 and 30 miles to the south-west of the city of Masulipatan. The printed and dyed stuffs of this place are highly esteemed: and in an island opposite to it grows a root which makes so deep a colour, that it is obliged to be mixed with other colours to make it lively.

The English have also a small factory about 100 miles farther south, called Coletore: and still a little farther south is a factory belonging to the Dutch, called Palicate.

SECTION XIII.

CONCISE HISTORY OF HINDOSTAN.

THE opulence of this country attracted the notice of the first conqueror of the world, and furnished an ample field for the ancient Grecian mythology. The first authentic account of the invasion of this country is that of Alexander the Great, the celebrated Macedonian hero, who passed the river Indus without the least opposition, received the submission of one of the princes, vanquished Porus, whose dominions lay beyond the river Hydaspes, which he bravely defended, but afterwards restored him to them, for the courage he had shewn in defence of himself and people.

The Arabs, at the beginning of the eighth century, overran India, and subjected some few islands to their dominion; but they did not think proper to make any settlements.

Some barbarians from Chorassan, about three centuries afterwards, invaded India on the north side, and extended their ravages to Gazurat, carrying off immense spoils.

These were succeeded by Zingis Khan, who, at the head of his Tartars, invaded the western parts of India, about the year 1200, and made the emperor forsake his capital. Afterwards the Patans reigned over the fine country of Hindostan.

Towards the close of the 13th century, Tamerlane, from Tartary, made his appearance before the north side of Hindostan, and securing the northern provinces to himself, gave up the plunder of the southern to his officers. He appeared resolved to conquer all India, when, at the solicitation of the Christians, suddenly attacking Bajazet, emperor of the Turks, he subdued and deposed him, and found himself master, on uniting his conquests, of the vast track of territory from the coast of Smyrna to the borders of the Ganges.

The history of the successors of the mighty Tamerlane, who reigned over this vast track, with little interruption, more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but writers in general agree that they were powerful and despotic princes, and that they committed their provinces to rapacious governors, by which means their empire was frequently brought to a distracted state.

In the year 1667 the famous Aurengzebe ascended the throne of Hindostan, after staining his hands with the blood of his father, his brother, and nephews. Aurengzebe may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion over the peninsula within the Ganges, and lived so late as the year 1707.

After him the empire was disputed by several of his descendants, most of whom being slaves to their passions, duped by their governors of provinces, or taken off by the stratagems of their rivals, held the imperial sway but a short time of strife and confusion, till Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in the year 1719.

He was succeeded by a prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and maintained the empire a considerable time against powerful opponents, till, abandoning himself to the same courses that had been so fatal to his predecessors, Nizam, his principal general, and considered as the first subject in the empire, invited Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the usurper of Persia, to invade Hindostan. The successes of Nadir Shah are well known, as well as the immense treasures he carried from Hindostan in 1739.

The invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered, indeed, as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. However, when Nadir had sufficiently enriched himself, he reinstated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned to his own country.

A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued, none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it.

This circumstance brought on another invasion from Achmet Abdallah, treasurer to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet put himself at the head of a powerful army, marched against Delhi, and being opposed by the Mogul's eldest son, Prince Ahmed Shah, a war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination.

His son, Ahmed Shah, then ascended the imperial throne at Delhi, but the empire fell daily more into decay. Achmet Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the river Indus is the general boundary.

Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, after which much disorder and confusion prevailed in Hindostan, and the people suffered great calamities.

The power of the Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane, the Mongul, or Mogul, Tartar) is little more than ideal. This very Mogul, who is stiled emperor of Hindostan, Conqueror of the World, The Ornament of the Throne, &c. &c. &c. from having been compelled, more than once, to make the most humiliating solicitations of assistance from the English, against the independent nabobs that surround him, is now little better than in a state of subordination to them, and is proportionally as poor as his predecessors have been wealthy.

**** We hope our readers will not think us remiss in concluding our account of Hindostan without entering into the conduct of our late eastern governors, &c. which we consider as deviating from the plan of our work. Besides, it is a subject of so copious a nature, that a large volume would not contain it; therefore it is of course too prolix to be here admitted. We beg leave, however, to observe, that whatever transactions may take place, from the foregoing history to the conclusion of our work, shall be inserted by way of supplement in one of our latter numbers, tracing the history down to the latest period, (together with the rise and progress of the East India Company,) as well as every other interesting circumstance that can possibly contribute to information and entertainment.*

C H A P. XX. A S I A T I C I S L A N D S.

S E C T I O N I.

THE ISLANDS OF FORMOSA, HAINAN, &c.

WITH respect to government, some parts of these islands are subject to the emperor of China, while others are under their own laws.

The word Formosa, which signifies beautiful, is peculiarly applicable to this island, it being remarkably fertile and fine. It is situated nearly opposite to the province of Fo-kien, in China, and is computed to be 216 miles in length, from north to south, and about 70 miles in the broadest part. Its longitude from Peking is from 3 deg. 20 min. to 5 deg. 40 min. east: so that when the sun is almost vertical over it, the climate is rather hot; but this is far from being disagreeable, as the violence of the heat is greatly mitigated by the situation of the island, which is so elevated as to receive the most agreeable advantages from the cooling breezes of the sea.

Thus while the sun with rays intense assails,
The zephyrs hasten with a friendly gale,
Glide through the fainting Formosan's retreat,
And quench the rage of equinoctial heat.

That part of the Island of Formosa possessed by the Chinese produces great quantities of different kinds of grain, especially rice; and its fertility is accelerated by the numerous rivers, whose streams glide conveniently through it. As great a variety of fruits are to be found upon it as in any other part of the Indies, particularly oranges, cocoas, bananas, ananas, guavas, papayas, &c. Also several kinds of those produced in Europe, as peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, and chestnuts. They have likewise a sort of melon, which is of an oblong form, and much larger than those in Europe: they

contain a white or red pulp, and are full of a fine juice, very grateful to the taste. Sugar and tobacco also grow here to the greatest perfection; and the trees that produce these are so agreeably arranged, that they appear as if calculated to embellish the most beautiful garden.

There are but few wild beasts on this island, and those seldom seen, as they chiefly inhabit the inland parts of it, which are very mountainous, and seldom resorted to by the inhabitants. They have some horses, oxen, sheep, goats, and hogs. They have but few birds, the principal of which is the pheasant; but the rivers produce great plenty of various kinds of fish.

As the coasts about this island are very high and rocky, and have neither havens or sea-ports, it is almost impossible to effect an invasion. Teovang, or Tyowang, is the only bay in the whole island where ships of any bulk can approach, and this is situated at the mouth of a river so narrow, and defended by such high rocks and forts on each side, that no enemy could possibly enter it without being repulsed.

Those who inhabit such parts of the island as belong to the Chinese have the same manners and customs, and are under the same government, as those of China; so that a repetition of them would be here unnecessary; we shall, therefore, only describe the persons, manners, and customs of the natives.

The natives of this island, who are subject to the Chinese, are divided into 45 boroughs or towns, 36 of which are in the northern part, and 9 in the southern. They are in general of a low stature, have large mouths, and are very swarthy in complexion. They have a very high forehead, and are altogether greatly disproportioned; for the body is very short, the neck small, and the arms and legs remarkably long.

Their

Their dress consists only of a rough piece of cloth tied round the waist, and reaching to the knees: but they adorn their bodies with the figures of trees, flowers, animals, &c. in doing which they undergo such violent pain, that only a small part of the operation must be performed at one time; so that it will take some months before the whole is completed. These embellishments, however, are only permitted to such as have distinguished themselves either by feats of activity or courage. The better sort avoid the punishment of obtaining these ornaments, by using the hair of animals intermixed with silk, and embroidered with gold and silver. They have all, however, liberty to ornament their arms and ears, which they do with the greatest profusion. On their heads they wear a kind of coronet, the top of which is terminated by a plume made of the feathers of cocks or pheasants. In short, the whole of their ornaments, with the awkwardness of their shape, form together a very whimsical appearance.

As the climate of the northern part is less temperate than the southern, the inhabitants are better clothed, their dress consisting of the skins of beasts, particularly stags, which they kill in hunting. This garment, however, is very uncouth in its form, being shaped like a vestment worn by priests, and without sleeves. They wear a kind of bonnet on their heads, made of the leaves of bananas, and adorned with coronets placed one above another, in the form of a pyramid: the whole is fastened with locks of hair of different colours, and the top of it, like those in the south, is terminated by a plume of feathers.

In the northern part the houses are built after the manner of the Chinese; but those of the south are mean cottages made of earth and bamboo covered with straw, and so close together, that they are only separated by a very slight partition. Their customs, however, in both parts are the same. They have neither chairs, tables, benches, or beds. Instead of the latter they use the leaves of trees, which they spread on the floor, and lay themselves down without any sort of covering. They dress their victuals in a kind of chimney, or stove, placed in the center of the room, and are exceedingly filthy in their manner of eating it. They have neither dishes, spoons, or knives, so that when the provision is dressed, it is laid on a piece of wood, or mat, and they pull it to pieces with their fingers. They do not take much pains in dressing their meat, for the less it is done the better they like it; and some of them admire it most, when it is so raw as barely to have felt the effects of the fire.

Their food chiefly consists of boiled rice, which they eat instead of bread; the flesh of sheep and goats, and game, which they sometimes catch in the woods, by shooting them, or running them down: the latter is the most common method; for their agility is so great, that they will even out-run the swiftest horse.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, which they use with such dexterity, that they will kill a pheasant flying at an amazing distance.

Little ceremony is observed in their marriages. When a man fixes on any object that he wishes to be his wife, he goes several days together with music, which he plays for some time before the door; but he is not permitted to enter the house. If the object of his affections approves of him, she comes out, and they agree upon terms, which being made known to their parents, the marriage feast is prepared, and the friends of each party are invited. The feast consummates the marriage; after which, instead of the wife going home with her husband, he continues in his father-in-law's house, and provides as well for him as for himself, during the remainder of his life.

As to religion, they worship idols as in China, to whom they offer sacrifices, which consist of hogs, rice, &c.

Their manner of treating the dead before interment is very singular. When a person dies, they lay him on a kind of scaffold made of bamboo, which they place

over a slow fire for nine days, after which they wrap the corpse in a mat, and lay it on a higher scaffold, covered with a pavilion made of shreds of silk, cloth, &c. Here it remains for two years, at the expiration of which they dig a large hole in the ground, and bury it. Each of these ceremonies are accompanied with feasting, music, dancing, &c.

Such is the notion of humanity with which these people are possessed, that if a person is exceeding ill, or afflicted with any painful disorder, which is not likely to be removed, they think it a kindness to dispatch him.

The government of each town or borough is confined to itself. Three or four of the most ancient, who are known to be men of integrity, are appointed as judges over the rest, who determine all differences; and he who refuses to submit to the decision is banished the town; nor can he either return, or be admitted into any of the others, so that he is obliged to finish his days without ever again participating of the natural enjoyments of society.

The inhabitants of this island pay an annual tribute to the Chinese, which consists of certain quantities of grain, the tails and skins of stags, and other productions of the country.

The capital city, which is in the possession of the Chinese, is called Tai-ouan-fou. It is large and populous, and carries on so extensive a trade, that it is little inferior to some of the most opulent in China. It is plentifully supplied with all kinds of provisions, either of its own product, or commodities brought from other countries, as rice, cotton, sugar, wine, tobacco, and dried venison; the latter of which is greatly admired by the Chinese, and considered as the most delicious food. They have likewise all kinds of fruits, medicinal herbs, roots, gums, &c. with plenty of linen, silk, and cotton of various sorts.

The houses are in general very small, and are built of clay, covered with thatch. The streets are long and spacious, and the buildings on each side have awnings, that join in such a manner as to cover the street; but these are only used during the hot months, to keep off the excessive heat of the sun. Some of the streets are near three miles in length, and between thirty and forty feet broad. These streets are chiefly occupied by dealers, whose shops are furnished with all kinds of goods, ranged and displayed to the greatest advantage. These shops appear very brilliant, and many people walk in the streets merely to gratify themselves with the sight of so great a variety of the richest commodities.

The city is not defended either by walls or fortifications; but it has a good garrison of horse and foot, consisting of 10,000 men, who are principally Tartars. These are commanded by a lieutenant-general, two major-generals, and a number of inferior officers, who are at liberty to relinquish their situation after having served three years, or sooner, if occasion should require.

The harbour is tolerably good, and sheltered from the winds; but the entrance to it is dangerous for ships of burthen, the bottom of it being rocky, and the water not above ten feet deep at the highest tides.

The Island of Formosa was first inhabited by the Japanese, about the beginning of the last century. These people were so pleased with the appearance of the country, that they built several small towns, and soon settled a colony. They were but a short time on the island, however, before they were interrupted by the Dutch, a ship belonging to whom being accidentally forced into the harbour, the people landed on the island, in order to obtain refreshments, and repair the damage the vessel had sustained by the storm. Pleased with the apparent fertility of the country, and the wholesomeness of the climate, they formed a plan of circumventing the Japanese, and getting the island into their own possession. This they would have done by force, as their power was superior to that of the Japanese, but were fearful of offending them, lest it should be injurious to their trade.

However,

However, after several solicitations for a small spot of ground on the island to build a single habitation, which proved ineffectual, they accomplished their purpose by stratagem, out-witting their rivals by policy, and thereby gained a sufficiency on which to erect a little town, consisting of several strong buildings, and a good castle, which they called Zealand, situated on so advantageous a spot, that it was impossible for any ship to enter it, of whatever force, without being repulsed. The Japanese, either offended at the great progress the Dutch had made, or not finding the advantages they expected, soon quitted the island, and left the Dutch in sole possession of it, after which the latter erected other fortifications opposite to their new fort, and raised such other defences, as made them complete masters of the island.

The Dutch, however, with all their policy, continued on the island but a few years; for one of the Chinese generals (a man of an enterprising genius) being defeated by the Tartars, who were then at war with the Chinese, fixed his views on Formosa, formed a resolution of ousting the Dutch, and establishing a new kingdom on the island. Accordingly he sailed from China with a very considerable fleet, and arriving near the mouth of the harbour he landed some of his men, and began to attack the fort of Zealand. The Dutch, not being apprehensive of any danger, were ill provided for the attack of so powerful an enemy. However, they held out a three months siege; at the end of which time they agreed to abandon the island, on condition they were permitted to take all their valuables with them, which was agreed to by the Chinese general, who was now left sole possessor. He, however, immediately acknowledged submission to the emperor, and several other towns were soon built on different parts of the island, the inhabitants of which have ever since been subject to the government of China.

The island of HAINAN (great part of which also belongs to the Chinese) is of considerable extent, and some of their towns are very populous. It is situated between 107 and 110 degrees east longitude, and between 18 and 20 degrees north latitude. It is bounded on the east by the Chinese Sea; on the west by the coast of Cochin-China; on the north part by the province of Quang-tong, to which it belongs; and on the south by the channel of Paracel, which joins the eastern coast of Cochin-China. It is about 200 miles in length from east to west, near 150 in breadth, and about 400 in circumference.

Kiun-tcheou, the chief city, is so situated, that ships lie at anchor close to its walls, with the greatest security. The streets are very uniform, and some of them at least a mile in length, but the houses in general are low mean buildings.

There are several other considerable cities on the island, all of which are situated near the sea-side, and subject to the jurisdiction of Kiun-tcheou, which is governed by mandarins of two orders, those of learning, and those of arms.

On the southern part of the island is a fine port, the bay of which is near twenty feet deep. There is also another very convenient port on the northern part, the entrance to which is defended by two small forts, though the depth of water does not exceed twelve feet. Here the barks frequently come from Canton with various commodities, in exchange for which they take several kinds of minerals, the natural produce of the country: for in some parts of the island there are gold and silver mines, as also mines that produce the lapis-lazuli, which the natives of Canton use in painting the blue porcelain. Between the two forts that defend the entrance of the northern fort, is a large plain, on which are several handsome Chinese sepulchres.

Though the soil is tolerably fertile, the climate of this island is in general very unhealthy, particularly the northern part. The southern and eastern parts are exceeding mountainous, but the vallies beneath are rich, and produce great plenty of rice. Here are likewise

several sorts of very valuable trees, particularly the rose or violet-tree, which is so fragrant in its scent, that it is purchased at a very high price for the sole use of the emperor. There is also another tree little inferior to this: it produces a kind of liquid, which is called dragon's blood by the natives, and, if thrown into the fire, diffuses a scent of the most agreeable nature.

Sugar, tobacco, cotton, and indigo, grow very plentifully on this island; and they have a great variety of the most delicious fruits.

Horses, sheep, cows, and hogs, are the chief animals on this island. On the mountains, and in the woods, are prodigious numbers of apes. It also abounds with various kinds of game, particularly deer and hares: also of different kinds of birds, as partridges, woodcocks, snipes, turtle-doves, and most sorts of water-fowl, all of which are little inferior to those of Europe. They have likewise most sorts of fish in great abundance. Among these is a little blue fish found on the rocks, which is so beautiful as to be esteemed of greater value than the gold coloured fish; but they will live only a few days out of their natural element.

The natives are short in stature, of a reddish complexion, and some of them greatly deformed. Their chief weapons are bows and arrows, in the use of which they are not so expert as the inhabitants of Formosa. They have also a kind of hanger fastened with a girdle to their waist, which they generally use to clear the way in forests, or other woody places.

Those natives who occupy the center part of the island, which is very mountainous, live independent, being subject only to their own laws and modes of government. They are seldom seen by the Chinese, except when they make an attempt to surprize any of the neighbouring villages. This, however, seldom happens; and when it does, they are naturally such cowards, that half a dozen Chinese will defeat at least an hundred of them.

Near Formosa and Hainan are a number of small islands, called the Piscatores, or Fisher Islands, which are situated in 23 deg. north latitude. On the west side of one of these islands is a large town, with a fort, defended by a garrison consisting of 300 Tartars.

Between Formosa and Luconia are a set of islands called the Five Isles, the northernmost of which lies in 20 deg. 20 min. north latitude. The largest of these is uninhabited, on account of its being a barren country; but the others have several good towns in them, and are very populous.

The hills of these islands are rocky, but the vallies are very fertile, being well watered with running streams. They produce plenty of pine-apples, plantains, bananas, sugar-canes, cotton, pumpions, and potatoes; and there are also great numbers of goats, oxen, and hogs.

The inhabitants of these islands are of an olive complexion, are short in stature, with round faces, low foreheads, and thick eye-brows. They have black hair, which they cut so short that it barely touches their ears. The men wear only a cloth about their middle, and have no covering on their heads. The women wear a short petticoat made of coarse callico, which reaches from the waist to the calves of their legs. Both sexes wear rings in their ears, made of a metal resembling gold, which they dig out of the mountains.

Their houses are small, and consist only of a few posts, bound together and covered with boughs of trees. The fire-place is at one end, and here they lay boards, on which they sleep. The houses are built in rows one above another, on the sides of the rocks, and they ascend to them by the help of ladders. There is a kind of street to each row of houses, which runs parallel with the tops of the buildings in the row beneath.

These islanders are naturally ingenious: they understand the use of iron, which they work into various forms, and build very neat boats, that resemble those with us called yawls. They have likewise some large vessels, which they row with twelve or fourteen oars. Their

Their language is peculiar to themselves. The only weapons they use are lances headed with iron. When they go on the mountains in pursuit of beasts, they wear a kind of armour made of a buffalo's skin, which has sleeves, and reaches down to the calves of the legs. It is wide at the bottom, but close about the shoulders, and is of such solid substance as hardly to be penetrated.

In general they are a very civil people, and will neither engage in quarrels among themselves, or with strangers. The men are chiefly employed in fishing, and the women in husbandry. Each man is prohibited from having more than one wife, who treats him with the greatest respect. The boys are brought up by their fathers to fishing, and the girls work with their mothers in the plantations, which are in vallies, where every person plants as much ground as is sufficient to supply the necessities of the family. They have no stated laws, neither have they occasion for any: every family has one superior, to whom the rest are subservient; and children behave with the greatest respect to their parents. In short, these people appear to enjoy real felicity, by seeking that happiness in their own minds, which is not to be found independent of ourselves. They have no ambition, and therefore are not desirous of leaving their own home to look after imaginary baubles. They content themselves with the situation in which Providence has placed them, and each succeeding day contributes to increase their happiness.

If solid happiness we prize,
Within our breast this jewel lies;
And they are fools who roam:
The world has nothing to bestow;
From our own selves our joys must flow,
And that dear hut our home.

SECTION II.

THE MARIAN, OR LADRONE ISLANDS.

THESE islands derived the appellation of Ladrones, or Islands of Thieves, (from Magellan, who discovered them in 1521,) on account of the thievish disposition of the natives. They obtained the name of Marian Islands from Mary, queen of Spain, who reigned at the time of their being first inhabited by her subjects.

The Ladrone Islands lie about 600 leagues to the east of Canton in China, 700 leagues east from the Philippines, and 7300 west from Cape Corientes in America. The principal parts of them have been for many years uninhabited, notwithstanding they are all pleasantly situated, and the soil in general is very fertile. The only one that can properly be said to be now inhabited by the Spaniards, is Guam, where a governor resides, and where there is a very strong garrison kept. It is at this island that the Manilla register ship generally takes in fresh provisions and water in her passage from Acapulco to the Philippines.

Tinian and Rota were once very populous places; but the former is now quite uninhabited; and the latter contains only a few Indians, who are employed in cultivating rice for the inhabitants of Guam.

Guam is about 40 miles in length, and 90 miles in circumference, and the number of inhabitants are estimated at 4000; out of which, it is supposed, 1000 live in the city of San Ignatio de Agona, where the governor usually resides. It is pleasantly situated, and affords a fine landscape when viewed from the sea. The soil being rather dry, it produces little rice; but they have several kinds of excellent fruit, particularly pine-apples, melons, and oranges. They have likewise plenty of cocoas, yams, and a fruit about the size of an apple, which, when baked, is exceeding good, and is used instead of bread.

The natives of this island are strong and well shaped, but of an olive complexion. They have thick lips, a long visage, and a stern countenance. They wear long

black hair, anoint themselves with the oil of the cocoa-nut, and paint their teeth with red and black colours. Their houses are chiefly built of stone and timber, and the tops of them are covered with tiles. Their food chiefly consists of cocoa-nuts, bananas, fowls, fish, and pork; the latter of which is peculiarly sweet in its taste, the hogs being principally fed with cocoa-nuts, which grow here in great abundance.

In many parts of these islands the indigo plant grows wild, as do several other articles, which would be very valuable if properly cultivated: but as the other islands are uninhabited, and too remote, so the Spaniards indulge their natural indolence, by not taking any notice of them.

The natives formerly used slings and lances as weapons of defence; but they have for some years been restrained from exercising the latter; instead of which, they now use pieces of clay, made of an oval form, and baked so hard as to be little inferior in substance to stone. They throw these with great dexterity, and seldom miss the object. Some of these pieces or balls are so large, and thrown with such force, that they will kill a man at a considerable distance.

As the natives of Guam are not always upon terms of friendship with the Spaniards, the latter always keep here three companies of foot soldiers. They have likewise two small castles, each mounting only five guns; and on an eminence near the sea is a small battery, consisting of five pieces of cannon.

The other islands here, though uninhabited, afford a great plenty of provisions; but neither of them have any commodious harbour.

Though the Island of Tinian is uninhabited, yet it is one of the most delightful spots in the universe. It is divided into hills and dales, both of which are beautifully diversified with woods and lawns. The woods consist of tall trees, whose spreading branches yield the most delicious fruits; and the lawns, which are in general very broad, are covered with fine trefoil, intermixed with a variety of the most fragrant flowers. Among the fruits is one of a peculiar nature, called Rhyma, and, when roasted, is used by the natives of Guam instead of bread. Here are also many other vegetables of a very useful nature, as scurvy-grass, sorrel, mint, dandelion, creeping purslane, and water melons, all of which are efficacious for many disorders, particularly those of a scorbutic nature.

This island likewise abounds with cattle; and in the woods are great plenty of different sorts of poultry. The cattle are so numerous, that it is no uncommon thing to see some hundreds of them grazing together, which, when the island is viewed from the sea, greatly enhances the beauties of the prospect. The flesh of these animals is well tasted, and very easy of digestion. The poultry is also exceeding good, and very readily obtained. They are in general large, and can hardly fly an hundred yards at a time, so that they are frequently caught by being run down, which is the better effected from the openings of the woods, that in some parts are very considerable.

There are two large pieces of water near the center of the island, which are well stocked with plenty of wild fowl, as ducks, teal, curlews, and a bird called the whistling plover. The natives of Guam catch these with snares, which are ingeniously projected; and this is the only method whereby they can obtain them, as they are restrained from the use of fire-arms.

Upon this island are great numbers of musketos, and other species of insects, which, if they happen to fix on the skin, will produce an immediate inflammation, and, if proper remedies are not soon applied, will be productive of the most fatal consequences. There are likewise some scorpions and centipedes, but these are so few that they are seldom seen.

This island was once exceeding populous, and is said to have contained at least 30,000 inhabitants. It was in this situation about the beginning of the present century, when a dreadful mortality raging among the inhabitants,

inhabitants, prodigious numbers of them died: and the mortality raging with equal violence in the Islands of Rota and Guam, the Spaniards obliged those that remained at Tinian to remove to Guam, in order to make good the deficiency by the number of souls that had perished in that island; since which time Tinian has been totally uninhabited.

The Island of Rota has not any thing in it that demands particular attention. Its chief produce is rice, which is cultivated by a few Indians, who live there undisturbed, but are subject to the Spanish governor that resides at Guam.

The other islands, though uninhabited, are in general exceeding fertile, the air good, and the climate temperate. They also produce plenty of provisions; but they are seldom visited, on account of the great inconvenience arising from the want of water for anchorage. That which has the greatest convenience in this particular is Tinian; but even there it is very unsafe, particularly from June to October, which is the season of the western monsoons.

SECTION III.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which are numerous, were discovered by Magellan in 1519. They lie from 5 to 19 degrees north latitude, and from the 114th to the 130th degree of east longitude, being situated in the Pacific Ocean, 300 miles to the south-east of China. In general they abound with every delicacy, and the soil is inconceivably fertile; but the excessive heat from their vicinity to the line; the innumerable noxious insects, and venomous reptiles; the dreadful earthquakes, and the frequent eruptions from many of their mountains, which are volcanos; the great number of poisonous herbs and flowers, from which the most pernicious vapours exhale; and the terrible storms of thunder, lightning, and rain, which spread shocking devastations around, combine to render them neither safe or desirable. In fine, this cluster of islands resembles a fair person with a foul temper.

Beauties can thus enchanting smiles impart,
While secret malice lurks within the heart,
'Till lost in tears the hapless lover drowns,
Martyr'd by falsehoods, sacrific'd by frowns.

The principal of these islands are the following:

1. Luconia, or Manila. This island is the largest of the Philippines, being near 400 miles in length, and above 180 in breadth, is situated in 15 deg. north lat. and deemed more healthy than either of the others. It has many mountains which contain gold, fertile plains, fine pastures, and springs of the most excellent water in the universe. It produces buffalos, sheep, hogs, goats, horses, fruit, &c.

The city of Manila lies upon an excellent bay, which is circular, and near 90 miles in circumference; the port is of course remarkably good, and well situated for the Chinese and East India trade. It contains about 3000 inhabitants; and, during the war of 1762, was taken by Admiral Cornish and Sir William Draper. It was, however, stipulated to be ransomed; but the ransom money has never yet been entirely discharged. It is a handsome city, containing several spacious streets, good houses, elegant churches, decent convents, and tolerable colleges. The seat of the Spanish government is here: The Indians pay a poll-tax; and a considerable sum of money is annually allowed for the support of female orphans, born of Spanish and Indian parents. To this island the Spaniards bring divers commodities; such as silver from New Spain, Mexico, and Peru; diamonds from Golconda; silks, teas, Japan and China ware, and gold dust, from China and Japan. The Spaniards send two large ships every year from hence to Acapulco in Mexico, with merchandize, and return back with silver.

2. St. John lies between 7 and 8 deg. north lat. is above 110 miles in length, and about 70 miles over in the broadest part. The soil is fertile; but, with the other islands, it partakes of the general inconveniences before recited. The inhabitants are good-natured and humane, but exceedingly ignorant. Their marriage ceremony is nothing more than putting earth upon the head of the woman, in token of her subordinate state, and the necessity of implicit obedience to her husband. They call themselves Christians. They wear only a loose robe of cotton or callico, which hangs to their feet: the men throw it over their shoulders, and wrap it round their waists; the women cover their heads with it like a hood, and close it at their breasts; but the men go bare-headed, and the children naked. In this island there is only one town, which is erected upon posts, but it is both inconsiderable and mean, and the furniture of the houses despicable.

3. Mindanao is 180 miles in length, and about 130 in breadth: the hills are stony, but produce many trees; the vallies are fertile, and well watered; and the inhabitants are plentifully supplied with all the necessaries, and many of the luxuries of life.

This island is governed by a sultan, subordinate to whom are several petty sovereigns, who rule over various districts. The monarch, when he goes abroad, is carried in a palanquin, and has a strong guard to attend him, who are armed with lances, swords, and bayonets.

The chief trade of this island is to Manila and Borneo; and the Dutch come from the Moluccas to purchase of them rice, tobacco, bees-wax, &c. The common people are always boasting of their honesty, but practice roguery: they steal whatever they can lay their hands on; and the magistrates, instead of punishing the delinquents, will protect them in order to partake of the booty.

The inhabitants of the various districts, or subjects of the several petty kings, speak different languages, but have a general resemblance in persons and features. They are short of stature, have tawny complexions, small eyes, little noses, wide mouths, thin lips, black teeth, and lank hair. They are ingenious, yet indolent; active, yet lazy; and good humoured, though revengeful. They live on the flesh of buffalos, most kinds of fowls, all sorts of fish that their seas and rivers afford, with rice and sago. They are, however, but slovenly in their cookery, and eat without either knives, forks, or spoons.

Some settlements in this island formerly belonged to the Spaniards, but they were driven from hence by the natives, who have been ever since extremely jealous of any foreigners making settlements among them.

The inhabitants in general are Mahometans. Those who reside in the interior parts of the country are called Hilanoons, and possess several gold mines. The people of the north-west part of the island are the most savage, and, in making war, neither give or take quarter. They allow of polygamy. The diseases they are subject to are fluxes, agues, cholics, and the scurvy.

Mindanao, the capital, is situated on the south side of the island, in 6 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 123 deg. 15 min. east long. It is watered by a small river that will not admit of ships of any considerable burthen; and those that do come up to the city, are greatly in danger of having their bottoms destroyed by worms, which abound in that river, unless they are well sheathed. The city is square, being about a mile each way: the houses are built upon posts near twenty feet high, with ladders to ascend them, according to the usual fashion of building in the Philippine Islands: they consist of but one floor, but are divided by partitions into many apartments. The sultan's palace is supported by 150 wooden pillars, or rather posts, and is much higher than any other house in the city, having iron cannon in the hall, and a broad fixed stair-case to ascend it. The Malayan, as well as the language proper to the island, is spoken in this city. All the floors of the houses

houses are matted, upon which the people sit cross-legged. The principal trades are ship-builders, goldsmiths, and blacksmiths.

4. Bohol is situated to the north of Mindanao, being about 120 miles in circumference: it produces cattle, fish, roots, rice, and gold.

5. Layta is about 270 miles in circumference, and is situated about 20 leagues north of Mindanao: a chain of mountains runs through the middle, and occasions such a singular variety in the climate, that while the northern side is benumbed with the chilling blasts of winter, the southern parts are cheered with the genial warmth of summer. The soil is in general fertile, and the people tolerably civilized.

6. Paragon, by some called Little Borneo, lies between 9 and 11 deg. north lat. and 114 and 118 deg. east long. and is the remotest of the Philippine Islands to the south-west: it is 240 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. Different parts of it have different masters: the interior districts belong to the native Indians, the north-east parts to the Spaniards, and the south-west to the sovereign of Borneo. The Indian inhabitants are Mahometans, and possess the greatest military spirit of any people who are natives of the Philippines. It produces prodigious large figs, a smaller sort, which is superior in quality, and plenty of rice.

Three inconsiderable islands, called Calamines, lie to the north and north-east of Paragon, which are not remarkable for any thing but plenty of wild birds.

7. Mindora is about 60 miles long, and 36 broad, and extends from 12 to 13 deg. north lat. and from 119 to 120 east long. It produces gold and pepper, and is divided from Luconia by the Straits of Mindora.

8. Tandaya is one of the most easterly of the Philippines: it is separated from Manila by a narrow strait, and is 125 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. On the northern coast there is a volcano, which throws out fire and flames.

9. Philippina was the first that was discovered of this cluster of islands, and consequently gave name to the rest. It lies between 12 and 14 deg. 30 min. north lat. and is the most fertile and pleasant of all the Philippines, exhibiting a scene of perpetual verdure; for here the sun is powerful without being disagreeable.

10. Sebu, south-west of Layta, is 60 miles long, and 38 broad. On the east side of it is the town of Nombre de Dios. The Spanish standard was first set up here by Magellan, the primitive circumnavigator of the world, who was afterwards murdered in this island by the natives. The town of Nombre de Dios is guarded by a considerable garrison; defended by a strong fort, and has a good haven. The island produces cotton, bees-wax, garlick, onions, and the abaca plant, of which cordage and packthread are made.

11. Panay lies between 10 and 11 deg. north lat. and 120 and 121 deg. east long. and is about 300 miles in circumference, and has the name of being the most populous of all the Philippines. It is watered by many rivers, and is exceeding fruitful, particularly in rice, of which it produces about 100,000 bushels annually above what the natives consume. Almost adjoining to this is the little Island of Imavas, which is not remarkable for any thing but producing a considerable quantity of saparilla.

12. Negroes Island lies between 9 and 11 deg. north latitude, and is about 300 miles in circumference. The natives are the most black of any of the inhabitants of the Philippines, from which circumstance the island is called Negroes Island. Bees-wax and cocoa-nuts are the only produce of the place. The bees are remarkably fine and large, and the people uncommonly skilful in managing them; but, in other respects, the natives are rude, brutish, and ignorant, which has given rise to this proverbial expression: *Negroes Island is inhabited by black and bees; but the winged natives are wiser and better governed than the walking natives.* Indeed, the sagacious little insects are truly astonishing.

Of all the race of animals alone,
The bees have common cities of their own,
And common sons; beneath one law they live,
And with one common stock their traffic drive.
Each has a certain home, a sev'ral stall:
All is the state's, the state provides for all.
Mindful of coming cold, they share the pain,
And hoard, for winter's use, the summer's gain.
Some o'er the public magazines preside,
And some are sent new forage to provide.
All with united force combine to drive
The lazy drones from the laborious hive.
Their toil is common, common is their sleep:
They shake their wings when morn begins to peep,
Rush through the city gates without delay,
Nor ends their work but with declining day.

13. Xolo is the most south-westerly of all the Philippines, and is governed by a sovereign prince of its own. It produces great quantities of rice and elephants teeth, and, indeed, is the only island among the Philippines in which elephants are bred. The air in this island is tolerable, being refreshed by frequent rains. The sea yields pearls; and great quantities of ambergris are found upon the shores. The soil is fertile in fruits, rice, and pepper; and numerous herds of cattle graze in the pastures.

14. Masbate, which lies almost in the center of the Philippines, is 93 miles in circumference, and abounds in gold, civit, bees-wax, and salt.

These islands produce great quantities of gold and other metals, pearls, ambergris, loadstones, ivory, pepper, bees-wax, and an excellent fruit called tanter, of which a most delicious pickle is made; mangos, durians, oranges, which are both larger and better than those of Europe; lemons, both sour and sweet; palm-trees, of which there are forty species, the principal being the sago; tamarinds, plantains, bananas, the cassia-tree, and ebony; most of the common timber trees, sugar-canes, tobacco, indigo; odoriferous and medicinal herbs, admirable flowers, and culinary vegetables, particularly potatoes, &c.

There is a singular species of cane-trees about the mountains of these islands, which being cut, yield water in great plenty. These canes afford great relief and refreshment to the natives, who would otherwise be parched with thirst, as no running streams or springs are found in any of the mountains where they grow.

They have one plant that has all the properties of, and is used as a substitute for, opium; of this the natives are very fond, and frequently intoxicate themselves with it.

The camondog-tree is of such a poisonous nature, that death instantly seizes any living creature who tastes either its fruit or leaves. It suffers no verdure to grow beneath its shade, and, if transplanted, poisons all vegetables that are near it, except a shrub, which is an antidote to it. The natives make an incision in this tree, from whence a liquor flows, into which they dip the points of their arrows and darts, in order to poison them; after which, a wound received from any of those weapons proves mortal. Besides this tree, there are many poisonous herbs and flowers.

The Philippines likewise abound in cattle of all kinds; wild beasts, whose flesh and skins are valuable articles; horses, sheep, civit-cats, game-fowls, fish, &c.

Alligators here are very dangerous; and the ignana, a kind of land alligator, does a great deal of mischief. Here are abundance of snakes, scorpions, centipedes, &c. The peacocks, parrots, cocatoos, and turtle-doves, are very beautiful; the Xolo bird eats like a turkey; the camboxa is a well tasted fowl, peculiar to these islands; and they have another kind of fowl, whose flesh and bones are quite black, but are, nevertheless, delicious food. The herrero, or carpenter, is a fine large green bird. It is called carpenter because its beak is so hard, that it digs a hole in the trunk, or some large branch of a tree, in order to build its nest. The tavan, a sea-

a sea-fowl, lays its eggs in the sand, to be hatched by the heat of the sun.

Monkeys and baboons here are very sagacious. During the season, when there is no fruit to be got, they go down to the sea-side to catch oysters. That the fish may not pinch their paws, they put a stone between the shells to prevent their shutting close.

In general the natives of these islands are composed of native blacks and tawnies; Chinese, or the posterity of Chinese, who have long settled among them; Malays, Portuguese, Spaniards, other Europeans, and a mongrel breed from the whole: the make, features, complexions, and manners of the people, consequently vary from each other.

Rice, fish, and fruit, are the common food of the natives, who eat very little flesh. They drink water, palm wine, and spirits distilled from cocoa and palm-trees. The Spaniards, however, live luxuriously, eating flesh at noon, and fish at night, and indulging themselves with all manner of Asiatic delicacies. Spaniards, as well as natives, smoke tobacco; but the latter chew betel and areka.

Swimming, bathing, dancing, music, and dramatic performances, are their amusements. Their weapons are bows, arrows, lances, daggers, and darts; and they defend themselves with helmets, shields, and breast-plates.

Polygamy is permitted among some of the Indian nations, but in others it is not allowed, except in cases of barrenness. They admit of divorces, which frequently happen. The husband buys the wife from her father, or nearest relation: a beast is sacrificed, an entertainment made of the flesh, and the bride and bridegroom having eat together out of the same trencher, are deemed lawfully married.

Children are either named after herbs or flowers, or from some accidental circumstance that occurs at the time of their birth: but as soon as they marry they chuse new names, and their parents are obliged to make use of their old ones.

The bodies of the dead are washed and perfumed, wrapped in silk, and put in a close coffin, near which a chest is placed, that contains the arms of a man, or domestic utensils of a woman. Mourners are hired to assist in making a dismal noise: but as soon as the body is buried, an entertainment is made, and all is converted to mirth and festivity. In general they mourn in black garments, and shave their heads and eye-brows. The real natives are exceedingly superstitious, profess the most gross idolatry, and their religious tenets are a jumble of ideas ridiculous and absurd.

The only accounts we have of the Caroline or New Philippine Islands, are those written by two priests, Father Clan and Father Gobien, which were composed at Manila, and founded on a description of them given by some of the natives, who were driven by stress of weather upon the Island of Tandaya.

These accounts place those islands between 6 and 12 deg. north lat. and 127 and 138 deg. east lon. Those gentlemen inform us, that they are exceeding populous, and governed by a king, who resides in one of them, named Lamaree; that the natives resemble the Malays, go almost naked, paint their bodies, speak a language somewhat like the Arabic, are without any form of worship, make no set meals, live temperately, &c. They have a few fowls, plenty of fish, and fertile lands, but they are without quadrupeds of any kind. The women adorn themselves with necklaces, bracelets, and rings, all made of tortoise-shell. They are of so placid a disposition, that no quarrel ever happens among them, and war is totally unknown.

We may conclude, from this brief account, that these are the most happy people that have ever yet fallen under our observation. They have no foes to fight, quarrels to decide, beasts to hunt, or game to kill; but each succeeding day enjoy the bounties of Providence without bodily labour, and insensible of any anxiety of mind.

SECTION IV.

THE CELEBES, OR ISLAND OF MACASSAR.

THIS island, which lies under the equator, is divided from Borneo by the streights of Macassar, as it is by the ocean from the Molucca Islands on the east, and the Philippines on the north. Its extent from north to south is upwards of 300 miles, and in the broadest part it is near 240. It is divided into six petty kingdoms or provinces, the principal of which are, the Celebes on the north-west, and Macassar, the latter of which takes in all the southern part of the island. But as all the other provinces are subject to these two, the island is sometimes called by the name of one, and sometimes by the other.

As the climate is both hot and moist, it is therefore unhealthy, except at the times of the northern monsoons. The western part lies low and flat, but the southern part is very high. In the rivers here is found gold dust, which is washed down in the sands from the neighbouring hills by the great torrents of water that sometimes fall after excessive rains.

Here is great plenty of various kinds of vegetables, all excellent in their qualities: the rice in particular is said to be much superior to that cultivated in any other part of the Indies. Their fruits and flowers are much the same as those in the Philippines. They have pepper, sugar, betel and areka, with the best cotton and opium; and their cattle are much larger and finer than any to be met with in other eastern countries. Their oxen and buffaloes are used only for draught, and they have very small horses for riding; but the natives use no other saddle than a painted cloth, without stirrups or bridle, having only a cord fastened to a bit made of wood. These horses have very hard hoofs, and are never shod.

There are prodigious numbers of monkeys and baboons in the woods and forests, which are so large, and go together in such considerable bodies, that they are very dangerous to travellers; but they have one enemy by whom they are sometimes conquered, namely, serpents, which are here of a most extraordinary size, and have such agility and strength, that they will pursue them to the very tops of trees, and frequently destroy them.

There is but one large river in the island, and that is dangerous, by reason of its being greatly infested with crocodiles. It runs from north to south into the bay of Macassar, where it is about half a league broad, and washes the walls of the city of that name: its channel is deep enough in some places to admit the largest vessels, but in others it is very shallow.

The natives are rather short in stature, and of a light olive complexion: they are particularly fond of having flat noses, insomuch that they practise methods in their infancy to obtain that distinguished form, with as much labour and attention as the Chinese women do to acquire small feet. Neither men or women wear any covering on their heads; but their hair, which is of a fine shining black, is ingeniously tied up, and from it hang curls that lay gracefully on the neck and shoulders. The men ornament their hair with jewels, but the women do not: the latter only wear a gold chain round their necks. Both sexes, however, dye their nails red, and their teeth either black or red, both of which they consider as very material ornaments.

The lower sort of people wear a loose garment made of cotton, which reaches below the knees; but none use either shoes or stockings. The women have a garment made of muslin, with strait sleeves that button at the wrists; besides which they wear a kind of drawers made of cotton, that are fastened round the waist, and reach to the ancles. The garments of the better sort are made of scarlet cloth, or brocaded silk, with large buttons of solid gold. They have likewise a very handsome

some fish made of silk, and embroidered, which contains their dagger and purse.

The diet of the common people consists principally of rice, herbs, roots and fish; and their usual drink is water or tea: the better sort eat flesh and poultry, the former being generally beef or kid, which are both exceeding fine; and they drink tea, coffee, and chocolate, the latter of which they get from the Spaniards in the Philippine Islands; they also use palm wine, arrack, and other spirituous liquors. They have but two meals a day, one in the morning, and the other about sunset, the latter of which is the principal: in the intermediate space they refresh themselves by chewing betel and areka, or smoking tobacco intermixed with opium. They sit cross-legged on the floor at their meals, and have very low tables for their provisions, which are set on them in plates or dishes made of wood; but they use neither knives or spoons.

Their houses, which are small but very neat, are chiefly built of ebony, and other wood of variegated colours. They have but little furniture, except the necessary utensils for dressing their provisions; but what they have is always kept exceeding clean; and to prevent the house being made filthy, they have vessels to spit in when they chew betel or smoke tobacco.

In general the men are very robust, and naturally so courageous, that they are esteemed the best soldiers in India; for which reason they are frequently hired into the services of other princes. Their arms are sabres and daggers, the latter of which they often infect with poison; and they have trunks from which they blow poisoned darts: these darts are pointed with the tooth of a fish dipped in the venomous juice of certain drugs that grow in the country, and it is said they will strike a mark with them at near 100 yards distance.

These courageous islanders were the last enslaved by the Dutch, who, however, could not effect a conquest till after a very long and expensive war, in which were employed almost all the forces they had at that time in India. The Dutch first joined the natives to oppose the Portuguese, who made an attempt to subdue this island; but the latter being soon conquered, the Dutch immediately took sole possession of it, and have preserved an absolute dominion over it ever since.

The Portuguese, and after them the Dutch, endeavoured to subdue this island, because it is situated near the Molucca and Banda Islands, which produce such great plenty of cloves and nutmegs, the possession of which they could not have secured without being masters of this island.

The natives, if well used, are loving and faithful in their disposition; but, if ill treated, will not be satisfied till they have had revenge on the party by whom they were injured. They are hasty and passionate, but have such just notions of honour, that when they discover themselves to be wrong, they will condemn their own conduct, and be glad to comply with any submission that may be thought necessary, as a recompence for the offence committed.

The women of this island are obliged to be very circumspect in their carriage, and very careful not to be seen in company with any other man than their husband. When this happens to be the case, the husband is indemnified if he kills the man he finds with his wife. On the contrary, the husband is permitted to have as many wives and concubines as he thinks proper; and the more children he has, the greater he is considered as being useful to society.

Both sexes are rendered active by a custom practised during their infancy. Every day their nurses rub them with oil, or water just warm; and these unctious encourage nature to exert herself with the most extensive freedom. Male infants are taken from the breast when a year old, their parents having an opinion, that if they sucked longer, it would greatly prejudice their understandings. When they are five or six years old, children of any distinction are entrusted to the care of some relation or friend, that their courage may not be weak-

ened by the caresses of their mothers, and a habit of reciprocal tenderness. They do not return to their parents till they arrive at the age of fifteen or sixteen, when the law allows them to marry: but this is a liberty they seldom use, till they are thoroughly versed in the exercise of arms. The boys are sent to school to the priests, who teach them reading, writing, arithmetic, and the precepts of the Koran; for though they retain many Chinese ceremonies, they are professed Mahometans. The girls are taught to read and write, to spin, cook, and make cloaths; for as there are not any tailors here, the women not only make their own cloaths, but also those worn by the men; and some of them are so industrious and expert, that they will obtain very handsome fortunes by that profession.

These people are so little addicted to infamous practices, or litigious disputes, that they have neither lawyers, attornies, or bailiffs. If any differences arise, the parties apply personally to the judge, who determines the matter with expedition and equity. In some matters of a criminal nature they are permitted to do justice to themselves. If a man detects another in the commission of adultery, murder, or robbery, he has a right to execute justice himself, by destroying the culprit.

The husband, on marriage, receives no other portion with his wife than the presents she received before the ceremony, which, as soon as the priest has performed, the new married couple are confined in an apartment by themselves for three successive days, having only a servant to bring them such necessaries as they may have occasion for; during which time their friends and acquaintances are entertained, and great rejoicings made at the house of the bride's father. At the expiration of the three days the parties are set at liberty, and receive the congratulations of their friends; after which the bridegroom conducts his wife home, and each apply themselves to business, he to his accustomed profession, and she to the duties of housewifery.

These islanders are all of the Mahometan religion. Many of them are great pretenders to magic, and carry charms about them, on a supposition of their securing them from every danger.

Funeral ceremonies are performed here with great decency; to secure which, the meanest person makes provision while in health, by assigning a certain sum to defray the incidental expences. As soon as a person is dead, the body is washed, and being clothed in a white robe, is placed in a room hung with white, which is scented with the strongest perfumes. Here it continues for three days, and on the fourth it is carried on a palanquin to the grave, preceded by the friends and relations, and followed by the priests, who have attendants that carry incense and perfumes, which are burnt all the way from the house to the grave. The body is interred without a coffin, there being only a plank at the bottom of the grave for it to lie on, and another to cover it; and when this last is placed, the earth is thrown in, and the grave filled up. If the person is of distinguished quality, a handsome tomb is immediately placed over the grave, adorned with flowers; and the relations burn incense and other perfumes for forty successive days.

This island was formerly under monarchical government; and in order to prevent the crown falling on an infant, the eldest brother succeeded after the death of the king. All places of trust in the civil government were disposed of by the prime ministers; but the officers of the revenue, and of the household, were appointed by the sovereign. The king's forces, when out of actual service, were not allowed any pay, but only their cloaths, arms, and ammunition. It is said that in some former wars he has brought into the field 12,000 horse, and 80,000 foot.

Assemblies are held at particular times on affairs that concern the general interest, and the result of their determinations becomes a law to each state. When any contest arises, it is decided by the governor of the

Dutch colony, who presides at this diet. He holds a watchful eye over these different sovereigns, and keeps them in perfect equality with each other, to prevent any one from aggrandizing himself to the prejudice of the company. The Dutch have disarmed them all, under pretence of hindering them from injuring each other; but, in reality, with a view only to keep them in a state of subjection.

The only foreigners permitted to come to this island are the Chinese, who bring hither tobacco, gold-wire, china, and unwrought silks; in return for which they take opium, spirituous liquors, gum, and linens. They get but little gold from hence, but great quantities of rice, wax, slaves, and tripam, a species of mushroom, which the rounder and blacker, the more excellent it is esteemed. The customs bring in upwards of 80 000 livres to the company: but they obtain a much larger profit from their trade, and the tenth part of the territory, which they hold in full right of sovereignty.

The chief city, Macassar, is situated on the banks of a river of the same name, near the south-west corner of the island. Here the Dutch have a very strong fort, mounted with a great number of cannon, and the garrison consists of 800 men.

In general, the streets of the city are very long and spacious, and are planted on each side with trees; but there are not any of them paved. The mosques and houses of the quality are built with stone; but those of the common people are of wood, and elevated from the ground with pillars. They are made of wood of various colours, and the tops of them are covered with palm or cocoa leaves. Here are large markets for the sale of provisions and other commodities. The markets are opened twice a day, viz. in the morning and evening, before the rising and setting of the sun. The provisions are brought to market and sold by women only; for if a man was to be seen in that character, he would be treated with the most distinguished contempt. The number of inhabitants in this city were formerly estimated at 160,000 men able to bear arms; but since the Dutch deprived them of their trade, great numbers have forsaken it: and the other towns and villages, which were proportionably populous, have been greatly deserted for the same reason.

Jampandam, the only principal place on this island, exclusive of the city of Macassar, is situated about 15 miles to the south of Macassar river. This was the first place of any importance taken by the Dutch, who have a good fort here; and there is as commodious an harbour as any to be met with in the Indian Seas.

Of the several islands about the Celebes that go by the same name, the principal is situated about five leagues from the south-east corner. This island is about 80 miles long, and 30 broad. On the east side of it is a large town and harbour called Callacassong, the streets of which are spacious, and enclosed on each side with cocoa-trees. The inhabitants are Mahometans, speak the Malayan tongue, and are governed by an absolute prince.

To the north-east of this island are the Straits of Patience, so called from the great difficulty in passing them, which arises from the violence of the currents, and the contrariety of winds.

SECTION V.

THE SUNDA ISLANDS.

ISLAND OF BORNEO.

BORNEO, the largest of the Sunda Islands, was discovered by the Portuguese in 1521. It is of great extent, being situated between 7 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 4 deg. 10 min. south, under the equinoctial line, which divides it into two unequal parts, 7 deg. 30 min. lying northward of it, and 4 deg. 10 min. southward; so that it is 700 miles in length, and 480 in breadth. It is bounded on the east by the Celebes,

on the west by Sumatra, on the north by the Philippines, and on the south by the Island of Java.

Considering the situation of the country, the air is tolerable, particularly in those parts next the coast, which are refreshed every morning by cooling breezes from the sea, otherwise the heat would be insupportable. These parts, however, are very unwholesome, as they lay on a flat for many hundred miles, and are annually overflowed. When the waters retire, a muddy slime is left on the surface of the earth, which the sun shining upon with perpendicular rays, occasions thick fogs, that afterwards turn to rain, with cold chilling winds; so that the air at this time is very unwholesome. Another circumstance that contributes to this, is the great number of frogs and other vermin left on the mud, which being destroyed by the heat of the sun, produce an intolerable stench.

In April the dry season begins, and continues till September, during which time the wind is easterly between the south coasts of Borneo and the Island of Java; but from September to April the winds are westerly, attended by violent storms of rain, thunder, and lightning. These storms are so continual, especially on the south coast, that it is thought very extraordinary to have two hours fair weather in the course of 24.

Exclusive of rice, which is very plentiful, the produce of this country consists of frankincense, musk, aloes, pepper, cinnamon, and other spices; also various kinds of fruits, with excellent mastic, and other gums, wax, cassia, honey, cotton, and the best camphire.

Borneo produces great quantities of excellent timber, with the cotton shrub, canes, and rattans. In the rivers, particularly that of Succadanea, are found excellent diamonds, and great quantities of gold dust are gathered from the sands. The loadstone is also found here; and the wild ape produces the richest bezoar stones that are any where to be met with. Here are also mines of iron and tin, which are said to be excellent in their qualities.

The animals of this country are oxen, buffalos, horses, deer, and goats; besides which there are several sorts of wild beasts, as elephants, bears, tigers, monkeys, and baboons.

There are various kinds of parrots and paroquets, one of which is called by the Banjareens *luree*, and is admired for its beauty. They have also several other kinds of birds, but not any like those in Europe, except the sparrow. During the time of the western monsoons, the sky is frequently darkened with bats, which fly in prodigious numbers. They are called by some *flying cats*, and, in colour, shape, and smell, much resemble a fox, though not so large; but their wings, when extended, are not less than six feet from the tip of the one to that of the other.

The natives of this island may be considered as of two classes, differing as well in their persons and dress, as in their customs and religion. Those who inhabit the sea-coast are Mahometans, and called Banjareens, from the town of Banjar, to which most nations resort to purchase the various commodities of the country. The Banjareens are rather low in stature, and of a swarthy complexion, but, on the whole, very proportionably made. The common people have no other covering than a small piece of linen fastened round the waist; but the better sort wear a kind of waistcoat made of silk, or European cloth, over which they throw a loose garment of silk or betella, that reaches to the knees. They also wear a pair of drawers, but have neither shirt, shoes, or stockings. Their hair is tied up in a roll, and covered with a piece of muslin or callico; and when they go abroad, they always carry a dagger with them.

The women are smaller than the men, and their features much more delicate: they are also much fairer in complexion; and, contrary to the mode of most Indian women, walk very upright, and step with a graceful air. They are very constant after marriage, but are apt to bestow favours with great freedom when single: but however

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however indiscreet they may have been in this point, they are not considered the worse for it by their husbands; nor dare any one reproach them for the faults they have committed previous to their marriage.

The chief part of their food is rice, but with it they eat venison, fish and fowl. The better sort are served in vessels made of gold or silver, but the poorer sort use dishes made of earth or brass. They all sit cross-legged at their meals upon mats or carpets: both sexes chew betel and areka, and are very fond of smoking tobacco, with which they often mix opium made into pills, after being boiled in water till it comes to a consistency. The whole company usually smoke out of the same pipe: the master begins, and after having smoked two or three whiffs, he gives it to the person nearest him, from whom it passes round till it comes to the master again.

Their principal diversions are dancing and comedies, which are performed after the manner of the east. Their rural sports are shooting at a mark and hunting. They travel chiefly in the night, on account of the coolness of the air at that time: the common people usually go in covered boats, but the better sort travel by land on elephants and horses.

The salam, or lifting the hands to the head, and bending the body, is their mode of salutation. When they appear before their superiors, they raise their hands above the forehead; and if before a prince they prostrate themselves on the ground, and retire backwards on their knees.

Those who inhabit the inland parts of this island are taller, and much more robust than the Banjareens. They are called Byajos, and are pagans in their religion. Their complexion is more swarthy than the inhabitants of the coast; and their time is chiefly employed in hunting and attending their cattle. They go almost naked, having only a small piece of linen fastened round the waist: they paint their bodies of a blueish colour, and besmear them with stinking oil. Some of them are very fond of having large ears, to obtain which they make holes in the soft parts of them when young; to these holes are fastened weights about the breadth of a crown piece, which continually pressing on the ears expand them to an immoderate length. The better sort pull out their fore teeth, and place artificial ones in their stead, made of gold; but their greatest ornament consists of a number of tygers teeth, which are strung together, and worn about the neck.

The Banjareens, in burying their dead, always place the head to the north, and throw into the grave several kinds of provisions, from a superstitious notion that they may be useful to them in the other world. They fix the place of interment out of the reach of the floods, and the mourners, as in Japan and China, are dressed in white, and carry lighted torches in their hands.

Pagans as well as Mahometans allow a plurality of wives and concubines. They in general live to an advanced age, which is attributed to their frequent use of the water, for both men and women bathe in the rivers once in the day; from which practice they are very expert in swimming. The Malayan is the language of those on the coast.

They are strangers to the use of physic; and the letting of blood, however desperate the case of the patient, is to them a circumstance of the most alarming nature. An instance of their great timidity on this occasion is thus given by Capt. Beckman, who was under the necessity of submitting to that operation. "One day, says he, being indisposed, I ordered the surgeon to bleed me: Cay Deponattee, and several others of the natives, being in the room, and strangers to the operation, were in great amazement to know what we were about, till at length the vein being opened, they saw the blood gush out: at this they were so frightened that they immediately ran out of the room, crying out, in their language, 'the man's heart or mind is foolish,' after which they told us, we let out our very souls and lives willingly, which they said was very ill done. To

this I answered, that their diet being mean, and their drink only water, they had no occasion for bleeding; but that we who drank so much wine and punch, and fed upon so much flesh, which rendered the blood hot and rich, had an absolute necessity of doing it, otherwise we should be sick. "Ay, says Cay Deponattee, I think that shews you to be still greater fools, in putting yourselves to such expensive charges, on purpose to receive pain for it." This was certainly a very trite observation, and fully evinced, that if they wanted faith in the utility of this expedient, they were not defective in natural understanding.

As they suppose most of their distempers to arise from the malice of some evil demon, when a person is sick, instead of applying to medicine, they make an entertainment of various kinds of provisions, which they hold under some conspicuous tree in a field: these provisions, which consist of rice, fowls, fish, &c. they offer for the relief of the persons afflicted: and if he recovers, they repeat the offering, by way of returning thanks for the blessing received; but if the patient dies, they express their resentment against the spirit, by whom he is supposed to have been affected.

They know nothing of astronomy, and when an eclipse happens, they think the world is going to be destroyed. They likewise know little of arithmetic, and their only method of calculating is by parallel lines and moveable buttons on a board.

Their current money is dollars and half and quarter dollars; and for small change they have a sort of money made of lead in the form of rings, which are strung on a kind of dry leaf.

The towns and factories to which the Europeans trade are built on floats of timber on the river: each town consists of one long street; and, to secure them from being carried away by the stream, posts are driven into the ground near the shore, to which they are fastened with cables made of rattans. Each house consists only of one floor divided into different apartments, according to the number in family: the sides of the building are made with split bamboo, and the roof is covered with leaves of trees; the walls are made high for the benefit of the air, and from their tops hang coverings that reach within five feet of the logs, and are made in a sloping form, to keep off the scorching heat of the sun. The floats are made of large logs of wood, and the houses are so light in their construction, that a great part of the float is seen above the surface of the water.

The houses of the poorer sort are built on piles of bamboo, in the mud on each side, and are ranged in a uniform manner behind those on the floats. At high water they get to their houses with boats; and when the water is low, they go from one to the other on logs of timber. It sometimes happens, at ebb tides, when the current is excessive strong, that these houses will be removed a considerable distance, and with great difficulty brought back to their original stations. Instances have been known of their being driven to sea and totally lost.

The city of Borneo on the north, Passeer on the east, Succadanea on the west, and Banjar Masseen on the south, are the principal places for trade on this island. The last of these is the most considerable on account of the river Banjar, which is so commodious, as to admit ships of the greatest burden. This river runs from north to south above half through the island, and towards its mouth is near two miles broad. Its banks are planted with thick groves of evergreens; and one branch of it is called the China River, from the Chinese junks constantly passing it.

The inland part of this country is divided into several petty kingdoms, each of which is governed by a rajah, or king. Formerly all the rajahs were subject to the rajah of Borneo, who was esteemed the supreme king over the whole island; but his authority has been of late years greatly diminished; and there are other kings equal, if not more powerful than himself, particularly the king of Caytonge. The town where this prince

prince resides is situated about 80 miles up the Banjar river. His palace is a very elegant building, erected on pillars, and is open on all sides. Before the palace is a large building, consisting only of one room, which is set apart for holding councils, and entertaining foreigners. In the center of the room is the throne, covered with a rich canopy of gold and silver brocade. About the palace are planted several cannon, which are so old, and mounted on such wretched carriages, that they are neither ornamental or useful.

The superiority of this prince is derived from the customs he receives at the port of Banjar Masseen, which are estimated at 8000 pieces of eight per annum.

Next in rank to the above, is the king or sultan of Negaree, whose palace is situated at a place called Metapoor, about 10 miles from Caytonge. Before the gates of his palace is an handsome armoury, which contains a great number of fire-arms, and several cannon. He is always on good terms with his neighbour the prince of Caytonge, and to these two princes the rest are subordinate.

The natives pay great homage to these princes, and it is difficult for a stranger to get access to them. The only means to effect this is by complimenting them with some valuable present; for avarice is their darling passion; and the stranger will be treated with respect in proportion to the present he makes.

The mountaineers live independent of any of these kings: they are divided into different clans under their respective chiefs, and are subject to a government peculiar to themselves. They are seldom seen, as they live in the woods and forests, where they are so secure, that it would be difficult to attack them; and they are so savage, that an attempt would, in all probability, be attended with the most fatal consequences. Their arms are a dagger, and a trunk about seven feet long, thro' which they shoot poisoned darts made of brass, and barbed on each side. Their dress consists only of a piece of cloth wrapped round the waist, and a rag about their heads. They often come down to Tatas to get commodities from the Banjareens, in exchange for which they give gold, bezoar, rice, wax, &c.

The Dutch possess the principal parts on the coast of this island, and are masters of the best ports, and most valuable articles in traffic; but there are many creeks about the island, where others have free commerce without molestation. As this country produces a great variety of articles, whose value are more estimable to other nations than to the Dutch, numbers of foreigners resort here for those commodities that are best adapted to the trade of their own nation. The Chinese and Japanese come here for spices; the Malaysians for gold; and those from the Mogul country in search of diamonds. As the Dutch reckon the pepper, cloves, and cinnamon, as inferior to those of the other spice islands, so they suffer them to be sold without interruption. The natives are supplied by the Dutch with the manufactures of India; in exchange for which they receive gold, diamonds, and other valuable commodities.

Pepper, gold, precious stones, and a gum called dragon's blood, which is said to be finer here than in any other part of the world, are the principal articles purchased by the English merchants.

The European commodities taken here consist of guns, pistols, gunpowder, sheet-lead, iron and steel bars, nails of different sizes, hangers, knives, and other cutlery wares, boots made of red leather, spectacles, looking-glasses, clock-work, callimancoes, and various sorts of linens.

The capital city, Borneo, is situated on the north-west corner of the island, and lies in 112 deg. 2 min. east long. and in 4 deg. 55 min. north lat. On the east side of it is an excellent harbour, adjoining to which is a large river, capable of accommodating ships of the greatest burthen. The town is very large, the streets spacious, and the houses well built: they are, in general, three stories high, covered with flat roofs. The sultan's palace is an elegant and extensive building.

This place is the chief seat of commerce in the island, and the port belonging to it is continually crowded with ships from various nations, particularly from China, Cambodia, Siam, and Malacca: and there are prodigious numbers of boats that come from the Philippine and other islands. The Dutch import here glass, cinabar, cloths, woollens, and iron, in exchange for which they take camphire, gold, and precious stones. The Portuguese and English have some trade here, though no settled factory: but there are merchants of both nations who correspond with the company's factors on the coast of Coromandel.

Here it may not be improper to observe, that those who barter with the natives of Borneo must carefully examine the goods they purchase, and see that the weight or measure is just; for they are arrant cheats; and such strangers are they to any remorse of conscience, that he thinks himself the most ingenious, who commits the most distinguished fraud. They make compositions to imitate some of the most valuable articles, particularly bezoar and bars of gold; the latter of which is so artfully executed, that unless a penetration is made entirely through them, the deception cannot be discovered.

SECTION VI.

ISLAND OF JAVA,

As described by our Countryman Captain Cook.

THIS island is situated between 102 and 113 deg. east long. and between 5 and 8 deg. of south lat. being about 700 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is bounded on the east by the Island and Straits of Bally, on the west by the Straits of Sunda, (from whence it is called one of the Sunda Islands,) on the north by the Island of Borneo, and on the south by the Indian Ocean.

The Island of Java produces goats, sheep, hogs, buffalos, and horses. The horse which is said to have been met with here when the country was first discovered, is a small, but nimble animal, being seldom above thirteen hands high. The horned cattle of this country are different from those of Europe; the flesh is extremely lean, but of a very fine grain. Both the Chinese, and the natives of the island, feed on the buffalo; but the Dutch will neither taste the flesh or the milk, from a ridiculous idea that they are productive of fevers. The sheep are tough and ill-tasted, and they have long, hanging ears. A few sheep from the Cape of Good Hope being at Batavia, Captain Cook bought some of them at the rate of 1s. per pound.

Formerly this island produced no kind of spices but pepper, and the quantity which the Dutch bring annually from thence is very considerable; but the quantity used in the country is very small, as the people there give the preference to Cayan pepper. The inhabitants are very fond of nutmeg and cloves, but they bear too high a price to be much in use, as the trees which produce them are all become Dutch property.

The natives of Java profess the religion of Mahomet, and of course do not indulge in wine, at least publicly; but, not to be exceeded in the vice of drunkenness by their Christian neighbours, they are almost constantly chewing opium, which is well known to intoxicate in a high degree.

The most distinguished city in this island is Batavia, situated in 6 deg. 10 min. south lat. and 106 deg. 50 min. east long. from the meridian of Greenwich. It is built on the bank of a large bay, something more than twenty miles from the Streight of Sunda, on the north side of the island of Java, in low boggy ground. Several small rivers, which rise forty miles up the country in the mountains of Blaeuwen Berg, discharge themselves into the sea at this place, having first intersected the town in different directions. There are wide canals of nearly stagnated water in almost every street, and

and as the banks of these canals are planted with rows of trees, the effect is very agreeable; but these trees and canals combine to render the air pestilential. Some of the rivers are navigable more than thirty miles up the country; and, indeed, the Dutch appear to have chosen this spot to build the town on, for the sake of water-carriage, in which convenience Batavia exceeds every place in the world, except the towns of Holland.

The streets being wide, and the houses large, it stands on more ground than any other place that has only an equal number of houses.

In dry weather a most horrid stench arises from the canals, and taints the air to a great degree; and when the rains have so swelled the canals that they overflow their banks, the ground-floors of the houses, in the lower parts of the town are filled with stinking water, that leaves behind it dirt and slime in amazing quantities. The running streams are sometimes as offensive as the stagnant canals; for the bodies of dead animals are frequently lodged on the shallow parts, where they are left to putrify and corrupt the air, except a flood happens to carry them away. This was the case with a dead buffalo, while the crew of the *Endeavour* were there, which lay stinking on the shoal of a river in one of the chief streets for several days: indeed, the air of this place is so very unwholesome that it is represented by *Captain Cook* as the grave of European navigators.

Any number of ships may anchor in the harbour of Batavia, the ground of which is so excellent, that the anchor will never quit its hold. This harbour is sometimes dangerous for boats, when the sea breeze blows fresh; but, upon the whole, it is deemed the best and most commodious in all India.

The environs of Batavia have a very pleasing appearance, and would, in almost any other country, be an enviable situation. Gardens and houses occupy the country for several miles; but the gardens are so covered with trees, that the advantage of the land having been cleared of the wood with which it was originally covered, is almost wholly lost; while these gardens, and the fields adjacent to them, are surrounded by ditches which yield not the most fragrant scent, and the bogs and morasses in the adjacent fields are still more offensive.

At near forty miles from the town the land rises into hills, and the air is purified in a great degree: to this distance the invalids are sent by the physicians, when every other prospect of their recovery has failed, and the experiment succeeds in almost every instance; for the sick are soon restored to health; but they no sooner return to the town than their former disorders visit them.

Pine apples grow here in such abundance, that they may be purchased, at first hand, for the value of an English farthing. Our people bought some very large ones for a half-penny apiece at the fruit shops.

There are plenty of mangoes, but their taste is far inferior to that of the melting-peach of England, to which they have been compared.

The tamarinds are equally cheap and plentiful; but as the method of preserving them, which is in salt, renders them a mere black lump, they are equally nauseating to the sight and palate.

The Batavians, as well as the natives of other parts of the Island of Java, strew an immense number of flowers about their houses, and are almost always burning aromatic woods and gums, which is done by way of purifying the air; the stench that arises from the canals and ditches being exceeding nauseous and disagreeable.

The hogs here, especially those of the Chinese breed, are exquisitely fine food, but so very fat, that the lean is always sold separate.

The Portuguese make a practice of shooting the wild hog, and deer of two kinds, with which the neighbourhood of Batavia abounds. These are all good eatings, and are purchased at very moderate prices. The goats of this country are as bad food as the sheep. Dogs and cats abound on the island, and wild horses and other

cattle are found on the mountains at a considerable distance from Batavia.

Few monkeys are seen near the towns, but there are many on the mountains and desert places, where are also a few rhinoceroses, and great numbers of tigers.

The quantity of fish taken here is astonishingly great, and all the kinds of them are fine food, except a few which are very scarce; yet such is the false pride of the inhabitants, that these few sorts are sold at very high rates, while those that are good are sold for a mere trifle, nor are they eaten but by the slaves. A gentleman with whom *Captain Cook* dined told him, he could have bought a finer dish of fish for a shilling than what he had given ten for; but that he should have been the ridicule of all the politer people, if he had gone to so good a market.

Mr. Banks, while here, shot a lizard five feet long, which was exceeding well tasted; and our adventurers were informed, that some of these animals had been seen, which were full as thick as the thigh of a man.

Captain Cook was informed that, at the time he was there, the whole place could not furnish fifty women who were natives of Europe, yet the town abounded with white women who were descended from Europeans, who had settled there at different times, all the men having paid the debt of nature; for so it is, that the climate of Batavia destroys the men much faster than the women.

Mercantile business is conducted at Batavia with the slightest trouble imaginable. When a merchant receives an order for goods of any kind, he communicates the contents of it to the Chinese, who are the universal manufacturers. The Chinese agent delivers the effects on board the ship for which they are bespoke, and taking a receipt for them from the master of the vessel, he delivers it to the merchant, who pays the Chinese for the goods, and reserves a considerable profit, without the least trouble, risk or anxiety.

The Indian inhabitants of Batavia, and the country in its neighbourhood, are not native Javanese, but are either born on the several islands from whence the Dutch bring their slaves, or the offspring of such as have been born on those islands: and these having been made free, either in their own persons, or in the persons of their ancestors, enjoy all the privileges of freemen. They receive the general appellation of *Dramlam*, which implies, "Believers of the true faith."

The hair of the people, which is black, without a single exception, grows in great abundance; yet the women make use of oils and other ingredients, to increase the quantity of it: they fasten it to the crown of the head with a bodkin, having first twisted it into a circle, round which circle they place an elegant wreath of flowers, so that the whole head-dress has a most beautiful appearance.

It is a universal custom, both with the men and women, to bathe in a river once a day, and sometimes oftener, which not only promotes health, but prevents that contraction of filth, which would be otherwise unavoidable in so hot a climate.

Almost every person has heard or read of the *Mohawks*; and these are the people who are so denominated, from a corruption of the word *Amock*, which will be fully explained by the following story and observations. To run a muck is to get drunk with opium, and then seizing some offensive weapon, to sally forth from the house, kill the person or persons supposed to have injured the *Amock*, and any other person who attempts to impede his passage, till himself is taken prisoner, or killed on the spot.

While *Captain Cook* was at Batavia, a person whose circumstances in life were independent becoming jealous of his brother, intoxicated himself with opium, and then murdered his brother, and two other men, who endeavoured to seize him. This man, contrary to the usual custom, did not leave his own house, but made his resistance from within it, yet he had taken such a quantity of the opium, that he was totally delirious,

rious, which appeared from his attempting to fire three musquets, neither of which had been loaded, or even primed.

During Capt. Cook's stay several instances of the like kind occurred; and he was informed by an officer, whose duty it was to take such offenders into custody, that hardly a week passed in the year in which he was not obliged to exercise his authority: the Captain was also told, that jealousy of the women is the usual reason of these poor creatures running a muck, and that the first object of their vengeance is always the person whom they suppose to have injured them. The officer, whose business it is to apprehend these unhappy wretches, is furnished with a long pair of tongs, in order to take hold of them at such a distance from the point of their weapons, as to ensure his personal safety. When he takes one of them alive he is amply rewarded; but this is not often the case, as they are so desperate as not to be easily apprehended: when they are killed in the attempt to take them, the officer has only the customary gratification. Those who are taken alive are broken on the wheel, as near as possible to the place where the first murder was perpetrated; and, as they are seldom apprehended without being previously wounded, the time of their execution is sooner or later, according to the opinion of the physicians, whether the wounds are, or are not mortal.

There are many instances of the superstition of these people that might be thought very extraordinary; but the following will appear much more so. They are possessed with an idea, that when one of their wives is brought to bed, a crocodile is born, as a brother to the infant; and they imagine that the midwife conveys the young crocodile to an adjacent river, into which she puts it with the utmost care and tenderness. Those who suppose themselves honoured by the birth of this new relation, fail not to put food in the river for his subsistence; but this is the peculiar duty of the twin-brother, who performs this service regularly, at fixed periods, during the whole course of his life; firmly believing at the same time, that sickness or death would be the consequence of an omission on his part.

In the islands of Boutou and Celebes the natives keep crocodiles in their families; and it is conjectured, that the strange idea of the twin crocodile was first conceived in one of those islands: it extends, however, to Java and Sumatra westward, and among the islands to the eastward as far as Ceram and Timor. It is a matter of perfect astonishment, how even the most ignorant and credulous of the human race should firmly believe an utter impossibility to occur daily; yet it is certain, that not one of the Indians whom Captain Cook questioned on the subject, entertained the least doubt about the matter. The crocodiles supposed to be thus born are distinguished by the name of Sudaras; and our readers cannot fail of being entertained with the following story respecting them, which Mr. Banks heard from a young woman who was born at Bencoolen, and having lived among the English at that place, had learnt to speak as much of our language as was sufficient to make her story intelligible.

She said that, when her father was on his death-bed, he laid the strongest injunctions on her to feed a crocodile that was his Sudara; that he told her the name by which he might be called up, and the particular part of the river where she would find him. Soon after the death of her father she hastened to the river, and calling Radja Pouti (which signifies white king) the Sudara crocodile made his appearance, and she fed him with her own hands. She described him as being more beautiful than crocodiles are in general, for he had a red nose, and spots on his body; his ears were adorned with rings, and his feet with ornaments of gold. This story will appear the more extravagantly ridiculous when it is recollected that crocodiles have not any ears.

A man whose mother was a native of the island of Java, and whose father was a Dutchman, was engaged in the service of Mr. Banks during his residence at Ba-

tavia. This man told his master, that several Dutchmen, and many Javanese, as well as himself, had seen such a crocodile as was described by the girl who told the preceding story, and that, like her's, its feet were adorned with gold. On Mr. Banks's remarking the absurdity of these tales, and saying that crocodiles had not ears, he replied, that the Sudaras differed considerably from other crocodiles; that they had ears, though he acknowledged they were small, that their tongues filled their mouths, and that on each foot they had five toes.

While Captain Cook was at Batavia, Spanish dollars sold at five shillings and five pence each, and the price is seldom much lower. The Chinese would give only the value of twenty shillings for an English guinea that was almost new, and for those that were old, and much worn, only seventeen shillings.

Captain Cook observes, that a remarkable subordination prevails among the people in Batavia. Every house-keeper has a certain specific rank, according to the length of time he has served the company. The different ranks thus acquired are distinguished by the ornaments of the coaches, and the dresses of the coachmen: some ride in plain coaches, some are allowed to paint them with different devices, and some to gild them. The coachmen also are obliged to appear in clothes quite plain, or ornamented in various manners and degrees.

The chief officer in this place has the title of governor-general of the Indies, to whom the Dutch governors of all other settlements are subordinate; and they are obliged to repair to Batavia in order to have their accounts passed by him. Should they appear to have been criminal, or even negligent, he detains them during pleasure; sometimes three years; for they cannot, without his permission, quit the place. The members of the council, called by the natives *Edele Heeren*, and by the English, *Idoleers*, are next in rank to the governor-general. These assume so much state, that whoever meets them in a carriage are expected to rise up and bow, and after this compliment they drive to one side of the road and stop, till the members of the council have passed: their wives and children expect also the same homage, and it is commonly paid them by the inhabitants. Some English captains have considered this as a slavish mark of respect, derogatory to their dignity as servants of his Britannic majesty, and for this reason have refused to pay it: nevertheless, when in an hired coach nothing but a menace of immediate death could prevent the coachman from honouring the Dutch grandee, at the expence of their mortification.

With respect to the distribution of justice, it is administered in Batavia by the lawyers, who have peculiar ranks of distinction among themselves. Their decisions in criminal cases seem to be severe with respect to the natives, but lenient in a partial degree to their own people. A christian is always indulged with an opportunity of escaping before he is brought to trial, whatever may be his offence, and when convicted, he is seldom punished with death. On the contrary, the poor Indians are hanged, broken upon the wheel, and even impaled alive. As to the Malays and Chinese they have judicial officers of their own, named captains and lieutenants, who determine in civil cases, subject to an appeal to the Dutch tribunal. The taxes laid upon these people by the company are very considerable, among which, that exacted for liberty to wear their hair is not the least. The time of payment is monthly, and to save the charge and trouble of collecting them, notice is given of this by hoisting a flag upon the top of a house in the middle of the town, and the Chinese find it their interest to repair thither when a payment is due without delay.

About 80 miles east of Batavia is Cherabon, a place of considerable extent, and where the Dutch have a factory. The country is very fertile, and produces most kinds of provisions, particularly rice. The inhabitants are

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are under the dominion of four great lords, called sultans, one of whom is particularly attached to the Dutch, and for that reason is distinguished from the rest by the name of the company's sultan.

Bantam, which was once the metropolis of a great kingdom, is the principal place of commerce at the western part of this island. It stands in a plain at the foot of a mountain, from whence issues a river that divides itself into three streams, one of which runs thro' the town, and the others surround it. It is 12 miles in circumference, and, before it was reduced by the treachery of the Dutch, (who first joined the natives against their king, and then stripped the latter of all legal power,) was very populous, well fortified, and adorned with several elegant buildings and palaces. At this time, however, it is a very ruinous place, inhabited only by the poorest people.

Palamboan, the capital of a kingdom or principality of the same name, is situated in 114 deg. east longitude, and in 7 deg. 30 min. south latitude, on the Straits of Bally, through which the East India ships sometimes pass when they are homeward-bound from Borneo.

Mataram, an empire that once extended over the whole island, and even now takes up a considerable part of it, is under the government of the Dutch, and was the last reduced to subjection by them on this island. The country of Mataram is in general very fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, as also plenty of fruit. There are likewise various sorts of animals, particularly horses, sheep, goats, and remarkable large oxen. The rivers abound with fish, and the woods produce great plenty of game. But the most valuable articles of this country are rice, pepper, cadjang, cotton, yarn, cardamon, and indigo; the latter of which is esteemed to be as good in quality as any found in the Indies.

Mataram, the capital of the kingdom, is the usual residence of the king. His palace is a very handsome spacious building, adjoining to which are many good houses belonging to his nobles, who every day wait on him; and his subjects in general pay him the greatest homage.

Though these princes are vassals, yet they are permitted to live in as great state as if they were really monarchs; and the orders of the Dutch are always executed in their names. They therefore assume a dignity not inferior to the most despotic prince; and when they go abroad are attended with every distinguished mark of royalty.

Japara is situated at the bottom of an eminence called the Invincible Mountain, on the top of which is a fort built of wood. It is a very considerable place, and has a good road, secured by two small islands. The English had once a factory here, but they were driven from it by the Portuguese.

The natives of this country are very fond of diversions, particularly the representation of comedies; and they are such slaves to cock-fighting, that, by the large sums they bet, they are often reduced to the most abject distress.

The inhabitants of Japara are chiefly Mahometans, as is also the chief, who generally resides at a place called Kattasura, where the Dutch have a fort and garrison. This prince reigns absolute among his subjects, who are very faithful, and pay him the greatest homage. Like most eastern monarchs, he is constantly attended by women, and takes as many wives and concubines as he thinks proper. When his courtiers obtain an audience, they approach him with the greatest humility.

SECTION VII.

ISLAND OF SUMATRA.

THIS most considerable of the Sunda Islands is situated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 104 d. g. east long. and 5 deg. 30 min. north lat. It is bounded on the east by Borneo, on the north by Malacca, on the south-east by Java, and on the west

by the Indian Ocean. It is long and narrow, reaching in a direct line from the north-west to the south-east, and is about 750 miles in length, and 175 in breadth. It is the first of the remarkable islands that form the Great Archipelago of the east, the entrance of which is, as it were, blocked up by this island and Java, which form a barrier, separating the Indian from the Chinese Ocean; with this exception, that in the center, between the two islands, there is an opening, which appears as if purposely designed to admit a free passage for the advantage of commerce. This opening is called the Straits of Sunda, the south part of which is the north of Java, and called Java Head; and the north point is the south of Sumatra, called Flat Point. These two are about six leagues asunder, between which ships pass from Europe directly to Batavia or China, without touching in the Indies. They stretch away east from the Cape of Good Hope, and make no land till, having traversed the whole Indian Sea, they arrive at Java Head.

The air of this island is in general very unwholesome, arising chiefly from the two extremes of heat and cold, and the intermixture of wet from very heavy rains. The day and night are equal; and the inconveniences that occur from the excessive heat of the former are greatly increased by the cold chilling winds of the latter.

A chain of mountains run through the whole island from the south-east to the north-west, and here the air is more wholesome than on the coast. There are also considerable mountains on the west coast, in one of which is a volcano, that frequently throws out flames of fire.

The monsoons, or periodical winds, shift here at the equinoxes, as they do in other parts of the Indian Seas, blowing six months in one direction, and six months in the opposite direction. Near the coast there are other periodical winds, which blow the greatest part of the day from the sea, and in the night, and part of the morning, from the land; but these scarce extend seven miles from the coast.

Of the many small rivers on this island, none are navigable; and their waters are very unwholesome. The river Indapura, which falls into the sea on the west coast, has a water tinged with red, occasioned, as it is said, by the great quantity of ochre that grows on its banks, which are always covered at the time of the floods. The waters of all the rivers that overflow the low countries are very foul, and not fit for use till they have been boiled, and infused with tea, or some other wholesome herbs.

Pepper, rice, sugar, camphire, gold dust, bezoar, canes, and cotton, are the most valuable produce of this island. The soil is in some parts very fertile, and well watered with rivulets; but in the low lands, next the sea, are abundance of bogs and marshes, which produce only reeds and canes of bamboo.

Most kinds of fruits abound here, arrive to the greatest perfection, and are equal to any found in the Indies; as cocoa-nuts, limes, oranges, mangos, plantains, guavas, jakas, durians, pine-apples, mango-stans, and other tropical fruits. They have also melons, peas, beans, potatoes, yams, radishes, pot-herbs, sallads, and plenty of all kinds of garden stuff. There is likewise a plant grows here called bang, which is somewhat like hemp, and, when infused in liquor, operates much like opium. This is sometimes used by the natives, particularly when they are engaged in war, as it animates them to persevere in the most dangerous undertakings.

The animals here are horses, buffalos, deer, goats, hogs, oxen, and hog-deer, from the latter of which is obtained a species or kind of the bezoar stone. This stone is of a dark brown colour, and has two small coats, the innermost of which is covered with small strings, but the outer coat is quite smooth. When the stone is dissolved in any liquor, its taste is exceeding bitter; but if a small quantity of it is taken by those who have an oppression of the stomach, a foul blood, or a want of appetite, it will remove the complaints; and is also very

very efficacious in other disorders incident to human nature.

There are several sorts of wild animals in the woods and mountains, as tygers, elephants, rhinoceroses, monkeys, and wild boars. There are also squirrels, guanos, porcupines, alligators, serpents, scorpions, musketos, and other venomous insects: and this is said to be the only island in the East Indies where there are bears.

Here are several sorts of poultry, particularly fowls and ducks; also pigeons, doves, parrots, paroquets, mackaws, and a great variety of small birds.

The rivers abound with fish, among which are mullets, craw-fish, shrimps, eels, oysters, &c. and they have plenty of turtles. But some of the rivers are greatly pestered with crocodiles.

Great quantities of gold are got out of the rivers and mountains on the north part of the island; and the trade of Achen principally depends on this valuable commodity. There are also mines of tin, iron, brass, copper, &c. It has not any wheat or rye, but great quantities of barley, honey, wax, sugar, ginger, and pepper, with which they load their vessels every year; and they send their pepper and gold in exchange for rice and opium, which our merchants send them from Bengal and other parts.

The inhabitants on the coast are Mahometans; the mountaineers, or natives, are Pagans. They are in general of a moderate stature, and very swarthy complexion. They have black eyes, flat faces, and high cheek bones. Their hair is long and black, and they take great pains to dye their teeth of the same colour. They likewise besmear themselves with oil, as in other hot countries, to prevent being stung by the insects; and let their nails grow exceeding long, scraping them till they are transparent, and dyeing them with vermilion.

The poorer sort have a small piece of cloth fastened round the waist; and about their heads they wear a piece of linen, or a cap made of leaves, resembling the crown of a hat; but they have neither shoes or stockings. The better sort wear drawers or breeches, and a piece of callico or silk wrapped about their loins, and thrown over the left shoulder; and when in towns they wear sandals on their feet.

They are very proud and revengeful; and so indolent, that they will neither endeavour to improve themselves in arts, sciences, or husbandry; but suffer their manufactures to be neglected, and their lands to lie without cultivation.

Their flying proas, or sailing vessels, are greatly admired for the neat and convenient manner in which they are constructed. They are very expert in building their houses, but in all other mechanical arts they are very deficient.

Sumatra is divided into several kingdoms and principalities; but the most considerable is Achen, which comprehends the whole northern part of the island.

Besides the king of Achen, who is the greatest monarch in the island, there are several orancayas, or great lords, in this kingdom, who exercise sovereign authority in their respective territories: but they all acknowledge the king of Achen their superior, and accept the great offices in his court. In former times the kings have exercised such despotic power as to displace some of these, and depose others; and, on the contrary, instances have been known where these princes have deposed the king, and placed another on the throne.

The king of Achen and these princes have often struggled for sovereign power; and if the former has been absolute in some reigns, he has had a very limited authority in others. The king has the power of disposing of the crown during his life to such of his children as he thinks proper, whether born of a wife or a concubine: but if the king does not dispose of it in his lifetime, there are sometimes several competitors for it; and he who is most favoured by the orancayas, or vassal princes, usually carries his point; and in these cases the crown is elective.

The capital city of this kingdom is Achen, situated in 93 deg. 30 min. east long. and 5 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It stands on a plain about five miles from the sea, 1000 miles south-east of Fort St. George, in India, and about 450 miles north-west of the city of Malacca. The harbour, which is capable of containing any number of the largest ships, is commanded by a spacious fortress, encompassed with a ditch, well fortified according to the Indian manner, and mounted with cannon. There are seven gates belonging to the city, besides which there are other redoubts and fortifications in the adjacent marshes.

In Achen are about 8000 houses, which are built on posts two feet above the ground, on account of the great rains that sometimes so overflow the city, that the inhabitants go from one house to another in boats. The floors and sides are made of split bamboos, and they are covered with reeds, cocoa or palmetto leaves. They are chiefly divided by pallisadoes, except in two or three particular streets set apart for trade, and one that is particularly inhabited by the Chinese. The Europeans live as near each other as they can, in a long street near the river. They consist of English, Dutch, Danes, and Portuguese, who, with the Guzurats and Chinese, are the chief traders in the city.

The king's elephants and magazines are kept in the outer courts of the palace; and at proper distances are several small forts, well guarded, and stored with artillery and fire-arms. But the king's greatest strength consists in his elephants, which are very numerous, and so trained, that they will stand unmoved at the firing of artillery. It is said, that when they pass the king's apartments, they will salute him by bending their necks, and raising their trunks.

The king has also a great number of horses, all of which, as well as the elephants, have rich and magnificent trappings.

He is not at any expence in times of war; for, at his command, all his subjects are obliged to march at their own expence, and carry with them provisions for three months. If they are in the field longer than that time, he supplies them with rice for their support. On their going out he furnishes them with arms, a register of which is kept, and they are obliged to restore them at their return.

This monarch must be very rich, for he is at much less expence than any other prince in the Indies. In war he is only at the expence of arms, powder, lead, and rice, which is very trifling; and in peace it does not cost him any thing, even for the maintenance of his family. He has more flesh, fowl, and all kinds of provisions, paid him by his subjects, than are consumed in his palace; and the surplus is sold at the market for his benefit. He divides hereditary estates among his subjects, whom he obliges to furnish him with a certain quantity of rice every year. This he puts into his magazines, and exports to places where there is a scarcity of that article.

He is not at any expence either for his own cloaths, or those of his concubines; for, on a certain day in the year, all who have any office or place in the city, are obliged to make him a present of one or more garments, according to the income of their places. If the king disapproves of what is presented, he returns it back; and the officer that gave it is sure to be turned out of his place, unless he adjusts the matter by complimenting him with a sum of money.

He is heir to all his subjects who die without male issue. If they have any daughters unmarried, he sends them to the palace. He is also heir to all foreigners that die within his territories; for when such a person is known to be ill, the king's officers take possession of his house, and, on his death, remove his effects to the castle. He has the estates of all those put to death; and almost every day produces an instance of some innocent man's suffering purely to gratify his unbounded avarice. If it is a wealthy person in office that is pitched on, he is accused of mal-administration; and, to prevent

prevent their alienating their estates or goods, he takes them by surprise, and has their wives, children, slaves, cattle, and all their moveables lodged in the castle, before they know their sentence. Such is the tyranny of this despotic prince!

The natives of Achen are proud, envious, and treacherous; despise their neighbours, and yet pretend to have more humanity than the inhabitants of any other nation. Some of them are good mechanics, especially in building galleys; and they are very dextrous in doing all kinds of smith's work. They also work well in wood and copper; and some of them are skilled in making artillery. They live very abstemiously, their chief food being rice, to which some of the better sort add a small quantity of fish, and their usual drink is water. They are very fond of tobacco, though they have but little of their own raising and, for want of pipes, they smoke in a *bueno*, which is the leaf of a tree rolled up with a little tobacco in it; this they light at one end, and draw the smoke through the other, till it is nearly burnt to the lips. These rolls are very curiously formed, and great quantities of them are sold in the public markets.

As Mahometans, agreeable to the laws of the Koran, they are permitted to marry as many women as they please; but the first is entitled to the preference, and the children by her are esteemed the lawful heirs. If any disputes arise between the husband and his wives, they may separate, provided they mutually request it; but the solicitation of one only will not be sufficient.

The rites of marriage among the Sumatrans consist simply in joining the hands of the parties, and pronouncing them man and wife, without much ceremony, except the entertainment given upon the occasion. But little apparent courtship precedes the marriages; their manners do not admit of it, the young people of each sex being carefully kept asunder, and the girls being seldom trusted from under the wings of their mothers. The opportunities which the young people have of seeing each other, are at the public festivals. On these occasions the persons who are unmarried meet together, and dance and sing in company. The men, when determined in their choice, generally employ an old woman as their agent, by whom they make known their sentiments, and send presents to the female of their choice. The parents then interfere, and the preliminaries being settled, a feast takes place. The greater the concourse at these festivals, the more is the credit of the host, who is generally the father of the girl.

Mothers do not carry their children on the arm as our nurses do, but straddling on the hip, and usually supported by a cloth, which ties in a knot on the opposite shoulder. The children are nursed but little, not confined by any swathing or bandages, and being suffered to roll about the floor, soon learn to walk and shift for themselves. When cradles are used, they swing suspended from the ceilings of the room.

At their funerals the corpse is carried to the place of interment on a broad plank, which is kept for the public service, and lasts many generations. It is constantly rubbed with lime, either to prevent its decay, or keep it pure. No coffin is used, the body being simply wrapped in white cloth. In forming the grave, after digging to a convenient depth, they make a cavity in the side at bottom, of sufficient dimensions to contain the body, by which means the earth lies light upon it; and this cavity, after strewing flowers in it, they stop up by two boards, fastened angularly to each other; so that the one is on the top of the corpse, while the other defends it on the open side, the edge resting on the bottom of the grave. The outer hole is then filled up with earth, and little white flags, or streamers, are stuck in order around. They likewise plant a shrub bearing a white flower, and in some places marjorum. The women, who attend the funeral, make a hideous noise, not unlike the Irish howl.

It appears from the account of W. Marsden, Esq. secretary to the president and council of Fort Marlborough, No. 27,

that the people of Batta, in the Island of Sumatra, eat human flesh; not as a gluttonous delicacy, like the New Zealanders, but as a mode of shewing their detestation of crimes, and an horrid indication of revenge and insult to their unfortunate enemies. The objects of this barbarous repast are prisoners taken in war, and offenders convicted and condemned for capital crimes. The unhappy object, whether prisoner of war or malefactor, is tied to a stake: the people assembled throw their lances at him from a certain distance, and when mortally wounded, they run up to him as if in a transport of passion, cut pieces from the body with their knives, dip them in a dish of salt and lemon juice, slightly broil them over a fire prepared for the purpose, and swallow the morsels with a degree of savage enthusiasm. Instances have been known where, with barbarity still aggravated, they have torn the flesh from the carcase with their mouths. It is, however, but justice to observe, that though there have been instances of their eating the bodies of their enemies slain in battle, that horrid practice but rarely takes place.

Their method of destroying tygers is extraordinary, and worthy of notice. Torches, made of dried bamboos, are carried with a view to frighten away the tygers, which are alarmed at the appearance of fire; and for the same reason it is common to make a blaze with wood, in different parts round their villages. These animals prove to the inhabitants, both in their journeys, and even their domestic occupations, most fatal enemies. The number of people annually slain by these rapacious tyrants of the woods is almost incredible. Instances have been known of whole villages being depopulated by them; yet, from a superstitious prejudice, it is with difficulty the natives are prevailed on by a large reward, which the India Company offers, to use methods of destroying them, till they have sustained some particular injury in their own family or kindred. Their traps, of which they can make variety, are very ingeniously contrived. Sometimes they are in the nature of string cages, with falling doors, into which the beast is enticed by a goat or dog enclosed as a bait. Sometimes they manage that a large timber shall fall in a groove across his back. Sometimes he is noosed about the loins with strong rattans. Sometimes he is led to ascend a plank nearly balanced, which, turning when he is past the center, lets him fall upon sharp stakes prepared below.

The size and strength of the species which infest this island are prodigious. They are said to break with a stroke of their fore paw the leg of a horse or a buffalo; and the largest prey they kill is, without difficulty, dragged by them into the woods. This they usually perform the second night, being supposed on the first to gratify themselves with sucking the blood only. Time is, by this delay, afforded to prepare for their destruction; and to the methods already enumerated, may be added that of placing a vessel of water, strongly impregnated with arsenic, near the carcase, which is fastened to a tree, to prevent its being carried off. The tyger having satiated himself with the flesh, is prompted to assuage his thirst with the tempting liquor at hand, and perishes in the indulgence. Their chief subsistence is most probably the unfortunate monkeys, with which the woods abound. They are described as alluring them to their fate by a fascinating power similar to what has been supposed of the snake, the alligator, and the crocodile.

In this island every old man and woman is a physician, their rewards depending on their success. The mode of practice is either by administering the juices of certain trees and herbs inwardly, or by applying outwardly a poultice of leaves, chopped small, upon the breast, or part affected, renewing it as soon as it becomes dry. For internal pains they rub oil on a large leaf, of a stimulant quality, and heating it before the fire, clap it on the body of the patient as a blister, which produces very powerful effects. They never use bleeding. The small-pox sometimes visits the island, and makes terrible ravages. It is looked upon as a plague, and

drives from the country thousands whom the infection spares. Their method of stopping its progress (for they do not attempt a cure) is by converting into an hospital, or receptacle for the rest, that village where lie the greatest number of sick, whither they send all who are attacked by the disorder from the country round. The most effectual methods are pursued to prevent any person escaping from the village, which is burnt to the ground, as soon as the infection has spent itself, or devoured all the victims thus offered to it. Inoculation seems to be an idea not thought of. The venereal disease, though common in the Malay country, is, in this island, almost unknown. A man returning to his village with the infection is shunned by the inhabitants as an unclean and interdicted person. The Malays cure it with a decoction of a China root, called by them gadoong, which causes a salivation.

Robberies and murders are more frequent here than in any other part of the Indies, notwithstanding the laws are of the most severe nature. All offenders are brought to a speedy trial, and the punishment is inflicted immediately after their conviction. If the offence be of a trifling nature, the punishment, for the first time, is the loss only of a hand or foot, and the same for the second; but for the third, or if they rob to a considerable amount, they are impaled alive. When the hand or foot is to be cut off, the limb is laid on the edge of a broad hatchet, and the executioner strikes it with a large mallet till the amputation is perfected; and then they put the stump into a hollow bamboo stuffed with rags or moss, to prevent the criminal from dying by the loss of blood. After he has thus suffered, whether by the king's command, or the sentence of the judge, all the ignominy of his crime is wiped off; and if any one upbraids him with it, he may kill him with impunity. Murder and adultery are punished with death; and, in this case, the criminal has many executioners, he being placed amidst a number of people, who stab him with their daggers: but female offenders are put to death by strangling. The king is frequently a spectator of these punishments, and sometimes acts himself as executioner: and though such a spectacle must, to a feeling mind, appear of the most horrid nature, yet so little does he seem to be affected by it, that instances have been known of his executing a criminal, and immediately going to entertain himself with cock-fighting, a diversion more universally esteemed than any other in the country. A gentleman, lately arrived from this part of the world, has favoured us with the following particulars relative to that amusement. The cock-pit (if the expression may be used) is a spot on the level ground, on a stage erected and covered in. It is enclosed with a railing, which keeps off the spectators, none but the handlers and heelers being admitted within side. A man who has a high opinion of, and regard for his cock, will not fight him under a certain number of dollars, which he places in order on the floor. His poorer adversary is perhaps unable to deposit one half: thelanders by make up the sum, and receive their dividends in proportion, if successful. A father on his death-bed has been known to desire his son to take the first opportunity of matching a cock for a sum equal to his whole property, upon a blind conviction of its being invulnerable. Cocks of the same colour are never matched, but a grey against a pile, a yellow against a red, and the like. Great pains are taken in rearing and feeding. Contrary to our laws, the owner is allowed to take up and handle his cock during the battle, to clear his eye of a feather, or his mouth of blood. The cocks are never trimmed, but matched in full feather. The artificial spur used in Sumatra resembles the blade of a scymetar in shape, and proves a more destructive weapon than the European spur. It has no socket, but is tied to the leg, and in the position of it the nicety of the match is regulated. As in horse-racing weight is proportioned to inches, so in cocking a bird of superior weight and size is brought to an equality with his adversary, by fixing the steel spur so many scales of the leg above the natural spur,

and thus obliging him to fight with a degree of disadvantage. It rarely happens that both cocks survive the combat.

Having thus noticed the particulars relative to the kingdom and city of Achen, we shall now point out the other places that are distinguished in this island, beginning with those on the western coast. The first of these is Bencoolen, a settlement belonging to the English, but chiefly inhabited by people of other nations. This town is situated in 103 deg. east longitude, and 3 deg. 10 min. south latitude. The adjacent country is mountainous and woody; and in some parts are volcanos that frequently issue out fire. The air is very unwholesome, and the mountains are generally covered with thick clouds, that burst in storms of thunder, rain, &c. The soil is a fertile clay, and the chief produce is grass; but near the sea it is all a morass. The natives build their houses on bamboo pillars as at Achen, but the English build theirs with timber, not only from their being in want of stone, but on account of earthquakes, which very frequently happen in this part of the island.

There is a small river on the north-west side of the town, by which the pepper is brought here from the inland part of the country; but there is a great inconvenience in shipping it, on account of a dangerous bar at the mouth of the river. The road is also dangerous for ships, as it has no other defence from the violence of the sea during the south-west monsoons, than a small place named Rat Island, which, with the land of Point Sillabar, makes the haven. The town is about two miles in circumference, and is known at sea by a very high slender mountain, called the Sugar-Loaf, which rises in the country twenty-nine miles beyond the town.

A few years after the English first settled on this island, which was about the year 1685, the East-India Company built a fort, and called it Fort York. In 1690 a contagious distemper raged with such violence, that the governor and council all died in a very short space of time, which was attributed to the town being situated on so unwholesome a spot as not to be borne by an European constitution. In consequence of this calamity, the English, in 1719, began to build a new fort in a more healthy part, and better adapted for regular fortifications; but they had no sooner raised the walls of it, than the natives, who had a long time been at enmity with them, attacked the place, and set fire to the principal part of their buildings; on which the governor, with his small garrison, precipitately embarked for Batavia, leaving behind them several chests of money, and all the artillery, arms, ammunition, &c. The natives, however, finding themselves greatly injured by the absence of the English, and not having any method of disposing of their pepper, in a short time after invited them to return, and again take possession of their new settlement. This invitation being accepted, the fort they had begun was soon completed, under the name of Marlborough Fort; and they have been in quiet possession of the place from that time to the present.

Sillebar is an English settlement, situated about 15 miles from Bencoolen, where they constantly keep a detachment from Marlborough Fort. The town is tolerably large, and before it is a convenient harbour; but it has not any building, or other matter, that demands particular attention.

They have also other settlements to the north-west of the above, particularly at Cattoun, situated about 40 miles from Bencoolen; Ippo, about 30 miles farther to the north; Bantall, which is upwards of 100 miles north of Bencoolen; and Mocho, situated a little to the south of Indrapour.

The Dutch have likewise several good settlements on this island, the most considerable of which is Palimbang, or Pullambam, situated about 120 miles north-east of Bencoolen. The chief article of trade here is pepper, of which the Dutch have prodigious quantities.

The Dutch factories here are,

Bancalis,

ASIA.]

Bancalis, situated nearly opposite to Malacca, on the banks of a spacious river of its own name. The chief articles sold by the company here are cloth and opium, in return for which they receive gold dust.

Siaek is situated on the river Andraghina, but is an inconsiderable place, on account of the unwholesomeness of the air.

Padang is situated about 60 miles south of the equator, and has a fine river, where large ships may come up, and ride in safety; but it is the most insignificant settlement the Dutch have on this island.

Priaman, situated nearly opposite to Padang, about 100 miles north-west of Indrapour. It is very populous, and plentifully supplied with most kinds of provisions. The natives carry on a considerable trade in gold with the inhabitants of Manincabo. The Dutch had a factory here for some years, but were at length driven from it by the king of Achen.

Ticow is situated about seven leagues from Daffaman, in 20 deg. south lat. The inland part of the country is very high, but that next the sea is low, covered with woods, and watered with several small rivers, which render it marshy. There are, however, many pleasant meadows well stocked with buffalos and oxen, which are purchased at a very easy price. It likewise affords plenty of rice, poultry, and several sorts of fruits, as durians, ananas, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, melons, mangos, cucumbers and potatoes. But its most valuable produce is pepper, with which it abounds, and is in quality esteemed superior to that of any other place on the island; for which reason those parts are exceeding populous. The city is situated about two miles from the sea, opposite to a small island. It is but a mean place, for the city and suburbs do not contain 800 houses, which are chiefly built with reeds, and are neither strong or convenient.

Barros, one of the most considerable places on the west coast belonging to the king of Achen, is situated on a fine river near about the center between Ticow and Achen. The Dutch and English, as also the inhabitants of the coast, buy up the camphire here, in order to carry it to Surat, and the Streights of Sunda.

Andrigi is a small province, but is remarkable for producing great quantities of pepper; and gold is cheaper here than in any other part of the island.

Jambay also produces great quantities of pepper, which is said to be much superior in quality to that of Andrigi.

Pedir is a large territory situated about 30 miles from Achen, and has the advantage of an excellent river. The soil is very fertile, and the country produces such quantities of rice, that it is called the granary of Achen.

Passaman is a large place situated at the foot of a very high mountain, but is remarkable only for producing pepper.

There are several islands belonging to that of Sumatra, among which is one called by the inhabitants Pulo Lanchakay, and by the natives of Achen, Pulo Lada, or Island of Pepper, from its producing such a prodigious abundance of that article.

Lingen Island is situated about 60 miles north-east of Jamby, and about the same distance to the south-east of Johore. It is 50 miles in length and 10 in breadth: the interior part of it is very mountainous, but that next the sea lies low, and is very fertile. It produces pepper and canes, and in some parts of it are great numbers of porcupines.

Banca Island is large, being at least 150 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth. The natives, like most of the Malaysians, are treacherous, and very inhospitable to such strangers as unfortunately happen to be shipwrecked on the coast. At the mouth of the Streights of Banca is Lucipara, a small island, but so barren that it has but few inhabitants, and only produces a small quantity of pepper.

There are several other small islands belonging to Sumatra, some of which are uninhabited, and the rest so trifling as not to admit of description.

SECTION VIII.

THE MOLUCCAS, or SPICE ISLANDS.

THESE islands are called Moluccas from the word Moloc, signifying *head*, and referring to their situation at the head or entrance of the Archipelago of St. Lazarus. They are denominated Spice Islands from their abounding in spices, particularly nutmegs and cloves, which grow in no other countries in the known world. They lie between 5 deg. north, and 7 deg. south lat. and from 121 to 130 deg. east long.

The principal of these islands are the following, viz. Banda, Pulloway, Pulo Rin, Nera, Gumanpi, and Guliaien, all of which produce nutmegs, and are distinguished under the name of the Banda Islands. Ternate, Tidore or Tidor, Motir, Machian, Bachian, Amboy-na, Bouro, Ceram, Gilolo and Bouton, mostly produce cloves, &c.

The spices of these islands were known to the Europeans long before the passage to the East Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope had been found out, being brought to the Mediterranean by the way of the Red Sea, or sometimes through Persia and Turkey. But the Portuguese discovering the before-mentioned passage, and penetrating to these islands in 1511, the emperor Charles V. claimed them as his own; but the Portuguese would not give them up: they were, however, driven out by the Dutch, who are at present in possession of them, and destroy great quantities of the spices annually, in order to keep up the price, and not glut the markets.

The nutmeg resembles a peach, and the clove a laurel-tree, only the leaves are smaller than either: the fruit of the former is both nutmeg and mace, the nutmeg being the kernel, and the mace a kind of leaf that incloses the nutmeg-shell, and the whole is contained in a large coat like that of a walnut: but the cloves appear in clusters; the blossom changes gradually from white to green, red and brown, which latter is the characteristic of its ripeness; but when it is dried in the sun it receives a blackish hue. The clove is gathered from September to February, and the nutmeg in April, August and December. The April crop is, however, deemed the best; and the nutmegs, when gathered, are boiled in lime to prevent their being worm-eaten.

The Banda Islands, or those which produce the nutmegs, lie near each other. Banda, the principal of them, is about 20 miles long and 10 broad. Besides the large forests of nutmeg and clove trees, which grow spontaneously, and require not the least trouble, the soil is fertile in a variety of delicious fruits. The island is in the shape of a crescent, and the concavity of it forms an excellent bay, near which stands the principal town. Several brooks which flow from a small mountain water the whole country, and render it exceeding pleasant.

The natives are strong in their persons, disagreeable in their features, malicious in their tempers, and melancholy in their dispositions. The Dutch say,

They are ugly and strong,
And bear malice long.

The Island of Banda is divided into three districts: the religions are Mahometanism and Paganism. The natives have ships of some force, containing a few cannon in each, and use bucklers, back and breast-plates as defensive, and carbines, darts, lances, scymeters, &c. as offensive weapons. The men are very idle, and oblige the women not only to do all the domestic drudgery, but to cultivate the land. They have three harvests in the year, but make fruit a principal part of their diet.

The Dutch have a fort at the western part of the island, erected upon the top of a mountain, and ascended to by 324 stone steps. At the foot of the mountain

mountain stands a negro town, the principal factory of the Dutch being at Nera, which is well fortified, as are all the landing places in the island; and the whole are under the direction and superintendence of a governor and council.

The imports into this and the other Banda islands are, gold chains, gold coins, enamelled and damasked sword blades, silver cups gilt, guns, china ware; broad cloth, velvets, damasks, flannels, rice, &c. The exports are spices and fruits.

Nothing can be said of the other Little Banda islands, but what is included in the above general description of Banda.

Ternate is not above 24 miles in circumference; but though inferior in size to some of the other Moluccas, it is deemed the principal both by the Dutch and natives, as the Dutch make it the head seat of their government, and the chief prince of these islands the place of his residence.

This island produces cloves in great abundance, admirable almonds, delicious fruits, a few goats, and some poultry, but not rice or any other grain; for the excessive heat which is requisite to ripen spices, and meliorate fruit, parches the earth so as to render it incapable of bearing wheat, barley, or rice: for here the sun is seen in all his splendor and power, and his influence is so greatly felt, that his rays penetrate thro' the pores of the earth, and warm the soil to a considerable depth beneath the surface:

For like a giant strong, or bridegroom gay,
The sun springs dancing thro' the gates of day;
He shakes his dewy locks, and hurls his beams
O'er the proud hills, and warms the eastern streams:
His fiery couriers bound above the main,
And whirl the car along th' ethereal plain;
The fiery couriers and the car display
A stream of glory, and a flood of day.

The natives have a substitute for bread, which makes the most wholesome and exquisite cakes in the universe, that is, the pith of a tree called Sago, whose salubrious qualities are well known in Europe. This excellent tree is not only of utility with respect to its medicinal virtues, and for yielding them bread, but it affords them likewise drink, cloathing and shelter; for by incision, a liquor is drawn from it that exceeds most wines; the leaves being a kind of cotton, the smaller are converted into garments, and the larger used to thatch their houses. This bread contributes to the longevity of the natives, most of whom live to an hundred years of age.

All the Moluccas are subject to a king, who receives tribute from every one of the islands. The natives struggled against the encroachments of foreigners many years, but were totally subdued by the Dutch in 1680; and the latter have at present so many forts, and such strong garrisons, that the former do not entertain the least idea of driving them from their country.

The houses in general are built of cane; some few of the better sort, indeed, have wooden houses. With respect to their furniture, a mat serves them instead of a bed, chair and table; for they lie on it, eat and drink on it, and sit on it. This, and a pot to dress their victuals, a hatchet to cut their wood, and a calabash to hold their water, make the whole catalogue of their household utensils: their windows are not glazed, nor are their doors secured by locks. They wear silk or callico, and all persons make their own garments, the king and grandees excepted. Their fuel is odoriferous woods, and even their smiths use nothing in their forges but almond shells. The king resides at Malaya, a little town fortified with a mud wall; but the suburbs, in which the Dutch factory have a fine garden, is pretty large, and well inhabited by blacks. The palace is but a trivial building, but the gardens belonging to it are very pleasant, and contain an aviary filled with a great variety of beautiful birds, whose harmonious notes are delightful to the ear.

The waters in this island are remarkably clear, and the fish very delicious.

Ternate produces parrots, which are handsomer and speak more distinctly than those of the West-Indies; but the most remarkable of the feathered race in this island is the bird of paradise, which is justly deemed the most beautiful bird in the universe. The head is like that of a swallow, but the bill considerably longer; the body is small, but the plumage displays such admirable colours, as are inconceivably pleasing to behold.

There is a volcano in this island, which casts out a sulphurous fire three months in the year, and sometimes does great mischief. We have the following recent account of its dreadful devastations in a letter from a merchant at Batavia, dated Oct. 18, 1776.

"On the 4th of June 1775 there were more than 100 shocks of earthquakes felt here, some of which were so violent that they seemed to threaten the destruction of the whole island. About the 20th of August they were felt again, and the burning mountain, after a dreadful explosion, threw out hot stones, cinders, and lava in abundance; and on the 5th of November the earth was never still for three hours; the mountain seemed all on fire, and the most dreadful storm of thunder and lightning fell in every part of the island, which threw the inhabitants into such a consternation, that they ran from one part to another for shelter, but none was to be found: the sea was so dreadfully boisterous that destruction was there inevitable, and on the land the earth opened and trembled under them, as if the whole island was going to be annihilated; but by the providence of the Almighty a calm was restored, and the inhabitants had time to see what damage had been done, when it appeared that the Dutch settlement had suffered but little; but it will be some years before the islanders recover their loss. The king has made a report, that a large track of land on the north side of the island, in the district of Xulla Pacory, has been swallowed up, by which 16 plantations have been totally destroyed, and 141 persons either burnt, or drowned in the sea, where many of them took refuge in their boats. This report has been confirmed by about 30 of the unfortunate inhabitants, who are rendered dreadful objects by wounds and burns in this shocking event. On the 5th and 6th of November the earthquakes, and effusions of fire, stone and sulphurous smok from the mountains began as bad as ever, but no lives were lost. The horrors of this night are not to be described, for the thunder, lightning, and most shocking earthquakes continued without interruption for 12 hours, with the most terrible violence: from this dreadful night there were no more earthquakes till July 1, 1776, when they were again felt for two hours, but not violent."

The islands of Tidor, Motir, Machian and Bachian are remarkable only for producing nutmegs and cloves.

Amboyna, which is better than 70 miles to the northward of Banda, is about 72 miles in circumference, and lies in 3 deg. 8 min. south lat. and 127 deg. 10 min. east long. It contains at present above 50 protestant churches, and many of the natives, who have been sent over to Holland for education, officiate as clergymen and missionaries, by which means proselytes are exceeding numerous. The soil is very fertile, producing in abundance nutmegs, cloves, oranges, lemons, citrons, potatoes, millet, tobacco, sugar, bamboos, &c. but the air is unwholesome: there is a good bay, which penetrates very far into the land, and by that means forms a commodious harbour. The people extract a spirituous liquor, and a kind of oil from green cloves, which are both good in paralytic cases. The men wear only a piece of cloth about their waists, and are mighty proud of having large whiskers. They purchase their wives, but, in case of barrenness, divorce them. The women are both of a loose and of a malicious disposition. On account of the earthquakes the houses are all built very low. The strong and important fortress called Fort Victory, is the staple of the Dutch East India Company in those parts. It is defended

fended by four bulwarks, a broad ditch, and a garrison of 800 men. The English had formerly factories here as well as the Dutch; but, in 1623, the latter massacred the former, and usurped the dominion of the Spice Islands, which had been ceded to the English by the natives themselves. In putting the English and some Japanese to death, they used the most horrid cruelties, in order to extort confessions concerning a pretended plot, which they accused them of having formed: and, to the shame of King James I. and King Charles I. no satisfaction was obtained for the villainous barbarity. Oliver Cromwell was not, however, so easy about the matter; for he frightened the Dutch into the payment of 300,000*l.* as some kind of retribution. There are several populous villages in the island, in the churches and chapels of which religious service is performed both in the Dutch and Malayan tongues. It contains likewise many mountains, with springs of excellent water.

Bouro, in 2 deg. 30 min. south lat. and 125 deg. 30 min. east long. is about 75 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The Dutch have a strong fort here; though the island is perfectly secure from the singularity of its coast, which rises in a high ridge, and encompasses the whole as with a wall. It contains some prodigious high mountains, but is, nevertheless, very fertile, producing cloves, nutmegs, cocoa-trees, bananas, plantain, green ebony, beans, peas, potatoes, tobacco, Indian wheat, lime-trees, herbs, flowers, &c. Among the beasts are the civit-cat, and a singular kind of roe-buck, whose flesh is very delicate. The natives are black, and go entirely naked till they are twelve years of age, at which period they tie a piece of cloth round their waists, and never wear any other garment. They are Mahometans and Pagans, but, upon the whole, have very little sense of religion. When a relation dies, they appear very sad till the corpse is in the ground, and then they seem merry to an excess; but do not forget to make a kind of sepulchre of stone and clay, to cover the grave of the defunct. The next day after the women are delivered of children in this island, they go about their ordinary work, while the men indulge themselves in bed, and pretend to be vastly ill. Instead of a cradle, they put their infants in a kind of net-work hammock, which they hang upon a peg whenever they are too busy to dandle it in their arms.

Ceram is in 2 deg. 30 min. south lat. and in 127 deg. east long. and produces cloves and nutmegs, but is woody and mountainous. The Dutch factory, called Ambay, is defended by a strong fort and good garrison. The inhabitants, who are Pagans and Mahometans, own the king of Ternate as their sovereign, though they have a prince of their own who dwells at Cambello.

Gilolo extends from 1 deg. south, to 2 deg. north latitude; and from 125 to 128 deg. east longitude; and is 190 miles long, and 110 broad. The air is unhealthy, and the soil produces rice and sago, but no spices. The inhabitants are strong and tall, but barbarous and cruel, and have an independent sovereign of their own.

Bouton lies between 4 and 5 deg. south lat. and in 121 deg. 30 min. east longitude. It is 75 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. It has a good harbour, and contains a large town with tolerable houses, built in the manner of those of Mindano. This town is enclosed by a stone wall, and surrounded by groves of cocoa-trees. The natives are governed by a prince of their own, speak the Malayan language, and profess the Mahometan religion.

SECTION IX.

ISLANDS ADJOINING TO JAVA, WITH THE ISLAND OF TIMOR.

SEVERAL islands border on the coast of Java, where the European vessels, in their voyages to Borneo, meet with refreshments at a much easier rate than at Batavia. The Dutch have forts in most of

these islands, and the inhabitants are subject to their government.

Opposite the easternmost point of Java is the Island of Mandura, the most valuable produce of which, for foreign markets, are deer skins. Its principal town is Araba, situated near a deep bay, about eight leagues from the westernmost land of Java. The soil of this island is very fertile, and produces several sorts of grain, particularly rice; also various kinds of the most delicious fruits. The chief animals are buffalos, horses, sheep, and oxen, the latter of which are remarkably large, and the flesh little inferior to those of Europe. The buildings of the inhabitants, and their maxims and customs, are much the same as in other Indian nations; but they are divided in their religion, some of them being Mahometans, and others Pagans. The men are in general very robust and courageous, for which reason they are called upon by the Dutch, when occasion requires, to recruit their forces at Batavia, or such other of their settlements, where there is any deficiency in the fixed number of their troops.

Bally, an island, by some called Lesser Java, is situated to the east of Java, from which it is divided on the west by the Straits of Bally. It is small, but produces a great plenty of all kinds of provisions; and the natives are very strong and bold. The straits are narrow and dangerous; and it is with great difficulty that a passage can be made from Mandura to this island, owing to the violence of the winds, that blow from the south once in 24 hours.

To the east of Bally is the Island of Lambock, which is also very small, but produces every necessary article for the enjoyment of the inhabitants, though not any particular one for foreign markets.

Near Lambock are the Straits of Allas, so called from a town of that name on the shore, opposite to which lies the Island of Combava. This is a much larger island than either of the former two, notwithstanding which it does not produce any particular article for exportation.

There are two small islands to the east of Combava called Sappi, but they are not of any account in commerce. Adjoining to these is the Island of Flores, which is tolerably large, being 150 miles in length, and upwards of 50 in breadth. At the west end of this island is a town called Larrentoucka, the inhabitants of which are distinguished for the infamous practice of poisoning strangers.

At a small distance from Flores is the Island of Solor, where the Dutch have a factory; and to the east of this lie the Islands of Leolana, Panterra, and Misomby, all of which are only remarkable for producing a small quantity of sandal wood, and some cassia-lignea.

Timor lies about 50 miles from the three last mentioned. It extends almost north-east and south-west, and is situated betwixt 124 and 128 deg. of east long. and the middle of it is in 9 deg. of south latitude. It is upwards of 200 miles in length, and more than 50 in breadth, and is divided into several principalities or kingdoms. It has not any navigable rivers or harbours, but there are several bays, where ships may ride, at some seasons of the year, with the greatest safety, as the shore is good, and free either from rocks or shoals. The Dutch and Portuguese have both factories on this island, but the latter is the most considerable.

This island is very fertile, and produces a variety of valuable articles, particularly cocoa-nuts, which grow here in great abundance. There are also several sorts of trees that make excellent timber for ship building; and in some parts of the island are sandal wood and cotton-trees. They have likewise many kinds of fruit, as pine-apples, mangos, jakas, plantains, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, limes, and wild tamarinds.

The animals here are oxen, horses, goats, sheep, buffalos, wild boars, and different kinds of monkeys. There are also great numbers of lizards, scorpions, and serpents of various sorts, some of which are exceeding large, and much dreaded by the natives.

They have also different sorts of poultry, among which are ducks and geese; and the seas and rivers produce great plenty of fish.

The natives are of a low stature, and very swarthy in complexion; but they are strait, and their limbs rather delicately constructed. Their dress consists only of a small piece of cloth tied round the waist, and on their heads they wear a cap or bonnet made of palmetto leaves. The better sort decorate their heads with a kind of coronet made of thin plates of silver or gold, scalloped or indented on the edges, and the inside of it is curiously ornamented with feathers of various colours.

Hunting and fishing are their usual employments, in the former of which they are very expert. Their weapons are swords, darts, and lances, and with these they go into the woods in pursuit of buffalos, which they run down, and then kill them with their darts.

Land is of little value here; for the natives, in general, are too indolent to be at the trouble of cultivating it; but those who do are rewarded by the land becoming their own property.

They know little of arts or sciences, and are very poor mechanics, their principal ingenuity consisting only in building, the implements and materials for which they receive from the Chinese, who also bring them rice, tea, iron, porcelain, and raw and wrought silk; in exchange for which they take bees-wax and sandal-wood.

The Malayan, and a corruption of the Portuguese, are the most general languages used by the inhabitants of this island; but the natives have a language of their own. It is said, those who are independent of the Dutch and Portuguese, have a peculiar enmity to European strangers, and that when any land on the coast, if they have an opportunity, they will not hesitate to murder them.

The fort belonging to the Dutch here is called Concordia, situated on a rock near the sea, between two and three miles from the south-east point of the island. It is a plain building, and poorly fortified; but the natives are so well affected to them, that they are not under any apprehension of danger.

The Portuguese have a settlement on this island which is called Laphao, and situated by the sea side, about three leagues to the east of the Dutch fort. It is a very small place, containing only a few mean houses, and a church made of boards, covered with palmetto leaves. There is, indeed, a kind of platform here, on which are six iron guns; but the whole are so much decayed, as to be rendered almost useless. The people in general speak the Portuguese language; and the natives have been so intermixed with the Portuguese by marriages, that it is difficult to know one from the other. They are very fond of being called Portuguese, and most of them profess the Roman Catholic religion; but in other parts of the island they are either Mahometans or Pagans. Some trade is carried on at this place by the Chinese, who come here annually with their junks, and take the commodities of this country in exchange for those of their own. But the place where the greatest trade is carried on is Porto Nova, situated at the east end of the island, and where the Portuguese governor usually resides. This town, with that of Concordia, belonging to the Dutch, were some years ago attacked by a pirate, who plundered, and then destroyed several of the buildings.

Among these islands is an important one called Savu, situated in 10 deg. 35 min south lat. and 137 deg. 30 min. west long. *Captain Cook*, who touched at it in his voyage in the *Endeavour*, in 1770, observes, that it had before been very little known, or very imperfectly described. The following account, therefore, as taken from the journal of that celebrated navigator, to which we are happy in referring on every possible occasion, we presume will be acceptable to our readers. At the time the *Endeavour* lay there it was near the end of the dry season, when it had not rained for almost seven months, nor was there a running stream of fresh

water to be seen, and the natives were supplied only by small springs, situated at a distance up the country. The rains in this country cease in March or April, and fall again in November; and these rains produce abundance of indigo, millet, and maize, which grow beneath the noblest trees in the universe.

Besides these articles, the island produces tobacco, cotton, betel, tamarinds, limes, oranges, mangoes, Guinea corn, rice, callevances, and water melons. A trifling quantity of cinnamon was seen, and some European herbs, such as garlic, fennel, celery, and marjoram. Besides which, there are fruits of various kinds, and particularly the blimbi, which has a sharp taste, and is said to be a fine pickle, but it is not eaten raw.

Several buffalos were seen on this island, which were almost as large as an ox; and from a pair of enormous horns of this animal which Mr. Banks saw, it was conjectured that some of them were much larger; yet they did not weigh more than half as much as an ox of the same apparent size, having lost the greater part of their flesh through the late dry weather; the meat, however, was juicy, and of a delicate flavour. The horns of these animals bend backwards: they have no dewlaps, nor scarce any hair on their skins, and their ears are remarkably large. The other tame animals on the island are dogs, cats, pigeons, fowls, hogs, goats, sheep, asses, and horses.

Few of the horses are above twelve hands high, yet they are full of mettle, and pace naturally in an expeditious manner; the natives ride them with a halter only. The sheep are not unlike a goat, and are therefore called cabritos. The sea-coast furnishes the inhabitants with turtle, but not in any great abundance.

The natives of the island of Savu are rather below the middle stature: their hair is black and strait; and persons of all ranks, as well those that are exposed to the weather, as those that are not, have one general complexion, which is dark brown. The men are well formed and sprightly, and their features differ much from each other. The women, on the contrary, have all one set of features, and are very short and broad built.

The men have silver pincers hanging by strings round their necks, with which they pluck out the hair of their beards: and both men and women root out the hair that grows under the arms.

The dress of the men consists of two pieces of cotton cloth, one of which is bound round the middle, and the lower edge of it being drawn pretty tight between the legs, the upper edge is left loose, so as to form a kind of pocket, in which they carry their knives and other things: the other piece being passed under the former, on the back of the wearer, the ends of it are carried over the shoulders, and tucked into the pocket before. The women draw the upper edge of the piece round the waist tight, while the lower edge, dropping to the knees, makes a kind of a petticoat: the other piece of cloth is fastened across the breast, and under the arms. This cloth, which is manufactured by the natives, is dyed blue while in the yarn; and, as it is of various shades, its look, when it comes to be worn, is very beautiful.

The ornaments of the natives of Savu are very numerous, and consist of rings, beads worn round the neck, and on the wrists, and chains of plaited gold wire, like wife hung round the neck. These things are worn by both sexes; but the women have also girdles of beads round their waists, which help to keep up the petticoat.

The houses on the island of Savu are of different lengths, from 20 feet to 400, according to the rank of the inhabitant, and are fixed on posts about four or five feet from the ground. The houses are generally divided into three rooms of equal size, the center room being set apart for the use of the women; and sometimes smaller rooms are enclosed from the sides of the building, the whole of which is thatched with the leaves of the palm-tree.

The

The natives eat of all the tame animals which the island produces, but they prefer the hog to all the rest. Next to the flesh of hogs they admire that of the horse, to which succeeds the buffalo, and then the poultry: and they like the flesh of cats and dogs much better than that of goats or sheep. They seldom eat fish.

The fan-palm is the most remarkable, and most useful tree that grows on the island, its uses being equally great and various. Soon after the buds put forth, the natives cut them, and tying under them little baskets formed of the leaves of the tree, a liquor drops into them, which has the taste of a light wine, and is the common liquor of all the inhabitants. The leaves of the tree are applied to the various uses of making tobacco-pipes, umbrellas, cups, baskets, and the thatching of houses. The fruit is nearly of the size of a full-grown turnip; but the natives are not fond of it.

The island consists of five divisions, each of which has a rajah, or chief governor, of its own. These divisions are called Timo, Massara, Regeeva, Laai, and Seba. It was on this last division that our English adventurers went on shore, the raja of which was between thirty and forty years of age, and remarkable for his corpulency. He governs his people with the most absolute authority, but takes on him very little of the parade or pomp of royalty.

The natives are so expert in the use of their lances, that they will throw them with such force and exactness, as to pierce a man through the heart at the distance of sixty or seventy yards.

The inhabitants of Savu are divided into five ranks, the rajas, the land-owners, manufacturers, labourers, and slaves. The land-owners are respected in proportion to the extent of their lands, and the number of their slaves, which last are bought and sold with the estates to which they belong; but when a slave is bought separately, a fat hog is the price of the purchase. Though a man may sell his slave in this manner, or convey him with his lands, yet his power over him extends no farther; for he must not even strike him without the raja's permission.

The natives in general are robust and healthy, and have the appearance of being long-lived. The small-pox has found its way to this island, and is as much dreaded as the pestilence. When this disorder attacks any person, he is carried to some spot at a great distance from any house, where his food is conveyed to him by means of a long stick, for no one will venture very near the invalid, who is thus left to take his chance of life or death.

The Island of Savu having been visited by the Portuguese almost at their first sailing into this part of the world, they established a settlement upon it; but in a little time they were succeeded by the Dutch, who, tho' they did not formally possess themselves of the island, sent a number of trading vessels to establish a treaty of commerce with the natives. The principal object of this treaty is, that the rajas should furnish the Dutch, for the consumption of their spice islands, with rice, maize, &c. annually, and they are to return the value in arrack, cutlery wares, linen, and silk. In this agreement the rajas stipulated, that a Dutch resident should be constantly on the island, to observe that their part of the contract was fulfilled.

Once every two months the resident is attended by fifty slaves on horse-back, and in this state visits each of the rajas. He constantly takes with him a quantity of arrack, by which he makes advantageous bargains with the rajas. He had (says Captain Cook) been on this island ten years, during all which time he had not seen a white person, except those who came annually in the Dutch ship to carry off the rice. He was married to an Indian woman, a native of the Island of Timor, and he lives in the same manner as the inhabitants of Savu, whose language he speaks better than any other. Like them, too, he sits on the ground, and chews betel, and has so perfectly adopted their manners, that he is an absolute Indian, except in dress and complexion.

The morality of these people is of the purest kind. A robbery is scarce ever committed, and a murder is never perpetrated. When any disputes arise between the natives, they instantly submit the point in debate to the decision of the Raja, and rest perfectly satisfied with his determination. No man is permitted to marry more than one wife; yet a violation of the marriage-bed, or even the crime of simple fornication, is almost wholly unknown among them.

SECTION X.

ISLAND OF CEYLON.

THIS island (which was well known to the ancients, and is described by Ptolemy under the name of Taprobane) lies between 5 deg. 30 min. and 10 deg. 16 min. north lat. and between 79 deg. 40 min. and 82 deg. 45 min. east, at the distance of near 190 miles from Cape Comorin, on the continent of India. It is above 300 miles in length, about 140 in breadth, and 900 in circumference. The Dutch call their fort at Jaffnapatan, Ham's-Heel, from fancying that the island in form resembles a Whesthphalia ham.

Ceylon is one of the most pleasant and fertile islands in all the Indies, and the air is much more temperate than could be expected from its vicinity to the Line. The mountainous parts are woody, but the plains are exceeding fertile; springs, meandering streams, and rivers water the whole, but the latter in general are so rocky as not to be navigable. The principal river rises in Adam's Peak: it is called Mavillagouga, washes the city of Candy, and disembogues itself into the ocean at Trincomale. The variation of the seasons, and the winds which occasion the monsoons, are much the same on this coast as on the coast of India. The northern corner of this island is the most unfertile on account of its deficiency with respect to rivers, rivulets, springs, &c. and not enjoying any refreshing showers: but the other parts are amazingly fertile, being plentifully supplied with water, and enjoying periodical rains, which always proceed from the southward, but are prevented from reaching the northern district by a chain of very high mountains.

Ceylon produces all the fruits that are known in India, either on the continent or in the islands: hence it is called the *Garden of the East*, and *Paradise of the Indies*; grapes in particular are found in perfection during nine months in the year. It also produces plenty of ginger, pepper, sugar, mulberries, palms, cardamum, calacass, cotton, and areka trees; figs, originally planted by the Portuguese, long pepper, melons, various sorts of mangos, onions, garlick, and other European roots; but above all, cinnamon.

The cinnamon trees peculiar to Ceylon are the best of any known. In a very dry soil they are fit to be stripped of their bark in two or three years: if the soil is a moist white sand, five years are required; but in a wet earth they are eight or nine years before they become ripe. Those that happen to grow in the shade do not yield so fine a flavour as those that are entirely exposed to the sun.

This spice is of immense value to the Dutch, being universally admired for the fragrancy of its scent and delicacy of its taste; and the oil which they extract from it is an important article of commerce.

The fruit of the cinnamon-tree is about the size of a large hazle nut, resembles an acorn, and when boiled to a liquid serves the domestic purpose of burning in lamps instead of oil; as also the medicinal purpose of curing aches, pains, sores, &c. for which it is in great repute.

A gentleman, long resident in Ceylon in an exalted station, says, that the cinnamon plant appears to thrive better when self-sown, than when propagated by culture. To this the crows greatly conduce, for being fond of eating the red and quick tasted fruit of the cinnamon

cinnamon tree, they swallow along with the fruit the kernels, and scatter them thus indigested every where with their dung, by which the soil is at the same time manured, and the seed shortly after striking root springs up out of the earth. On this account no one dares to shoot, or otherwise kill a crow, under a severe penalty.

The same author relates the following extraordinary circumstance to shew the medicinal virtues of the pine-apple, which is likewise to be found in Ceylon. An European that lay ill in this island cried out day and night for somebody to bring him a pine-apple. It was, however, denied him by the physician. In a few days he died, and being opened, a worm of a large size was found in his stomach, which it had already begun to eat into. The people who attended the sick man, remembering what he had longed for, by way of experiment dropped some pine-apple juice on the worm, which died in an instant.

The betel (so much chewed in Asia) grows on a small shrub, the leaves resemble those of ivy, and are naturally of a green colour, but the natives whiten them by artificial means without impairing their virtues; the flavour is exceedingly pleasant, and the scent aromatic.

In preparing the quid, or rather pill, for chewing, they take a piece of chalky earth, or a kind of lime, about as big as a pea, which they mix with a fourth part of the areka nut, wrap the whole in three betel leaves, and chew it when they think proper. The areka-tree is strait, has no branches, but bears the fruit among a few leaves at the top. Till a person is accustomed to this chewing, it occasions a dizziness and stupefaction like tobacco; but when grown familiar is much more agreeable.

The mangos here resemble nectarines, and are, when ripe, either red, white, or green: they are from the size of an egg to that of a very large pear, are delicious when preserved, and make an admirable pickle.

The jackies produce nuts like chestnuts, which are substituted for bread when rice is scarce: they are, however, far from being wholesome.

Ceylon likewise produces the snake-tree, the root-tree, whose branches hang to the ground, and take fresh root; and the talipot-tree, which is as high as the mast of a ship, but without any branches or leaves, except at the summit. The top is therefore cut off, and used as an umbrella, or a soldier's tent; as it is very strong and light, and will fold like a fan.

Here are other species of grain that are converted either into bread or oil; the most singular of which is the tanna, celebrated not only for its goodness, but for yielding a thousand-fold.

The elephants of Ceylon are the largest in the universe, and if spotted preferred to all others: the tygers and bears are very fierce; and the buffalos, oxen, hogs, deer, &c. are excellent eating; nevertheless, the natives are fond of the flesh of goats, squirrels and monkeys. The monkeys in this island are innumerable, and of many different species; some of which do not resemble any that are to be found in other countries. One sort have grey hairs, with black visages, and a white beard from ear to ear, which makes them appear at a distance like old men; another sort are of the same size, but of an amazing whiteness. They reside in the woods, but often make excursions, and do a great deal of mischief, digging the dead bodies out of the ground to feed upon them.

The dogs are ferocious, but at the same time greatly admired for their sagacity, and are so faithful to their masters, that they fully merit the encomiums given by Homer to the dog of Ulysses.

When wise Ulysses, from his native coast
Long kept by wars, and long by tempests tost;
Arriv'd at last, poor, old, disguis'd, alone,
To all his friends, and e'en his queen unknown;
Chang'd as he was, with age, and toil, and cares,
Furrow'd his rev'rend face, and white his hairs;

In his own palace forc'd to ask his bread,
Scorn'd by those slaves his former bounty fed,
Forgot of all his own domestic crew,
The faithful dog alone his rightful master knew;
Unfed, unhous'd, neglected, on the clay,
Like an old servant, now cashier'd, he lay;
Touch'd with resentment at ungrateful man,
And longing to behold his ancient lord again;
Him, when he saw, he rose, and crawl'd to meet,
'Twas all he cou'd, and fawn'd, and kiss'd his feet;
Seiz'd with dumb joy, then falling by his side,
Own'd his returned lord, look'd up, and dy'd.

The natives feed sometimes upon young crocodiles and alligators, and out of their heads take a bone, which, when reduced to powder, is deemed a specific for the stone and gravel.

Here are swarms of ants, which throw up prodigious large hills, four or five feet in height, and two or three in diameter: these they arch in an admirable manner, make so strong that it is difficult to destroy them with a pick-ax, and fill them with all kinds of grain for their winter subsistence.

One species of bees here builds the combs on the boughs of trees. When the inhabitants would take the honey they hold lighted torches under the trees, which affects the little animals in such a manner that they fall down dead; the comb is then taken, and the bees gathered up and boiled for food.

Serpents and leaches are very numerous, and consequently very dangerous, as the natives go bare-legged; but as much as possible to prevent them from biting, they rub their legs and feet with a composition of ashes, salt and lemon juice.

No person but the king is permitted to keep turkies, geese, ducks and pigeons: his subjects are, however, allowed the use of all other fowls, wild and tame. Here are many wild peacocks and green parrots; but partridges, woodcocks, wood-doves, snipes, sparrows, &c. are not so plenty. The most singular bird, however, is one entirely black, called carlos: it has a large ugly head, a long bill, and short legs: it never lights upon the ground, but sits almost continually on a tree, where it quacks like a duck.

The island abounds with sea and fresh water fish, several kinds of which are appropriated solely to the use of the king; and it is death by the law for any person to catch them but for his use.

Though Ceylon abounds with mines of gold, silver, and other metals, none are permitted to be worked, but those of iron; and such as produce precious stones are all monopolized by the sovereign. The cat's-eye, which has a variety of fine colours, and needs no polishing, is the favourite gem; though their rubies, sapphires, topazes, hyacinths, turquoises, &c. are some of the finest in the universe. The mountains likewise produce crystal, green, white and red; brimstone, saltpetre, &c.

The inhabitants of Ceylon are composed of Dutch, Portuguese, Moors, Malabars, and a mongrel breed of all four; but the natives, who reside in the inland parts are called Cingulays or Cinglasses. These are of two classes, the Cingulays, properly so called, who are rather a civilized people; and the Vaddans, who live in the woods, and are quite wild. The first are well made, have regular features, are very active, ingenious, hardy, frugal, temperate, and neat; but to balance their good qualities, they are talkative, yet grave; crafty, yet courteous; and treacherous though complaisant. The latter live without civil government, are excellent archers, and their principal business is to kill and dry venison. When they have expended or spoiled their arrows, and want new ones made, they go towards the house of a smith in the night, and hang up a quantity of venison, with a leaf fashioned into the form and size of the arrow's point they want, by way of pattern: if the smith makes the arrows as they would have them, and leaves them in lieu of the venison, with a leaf

a leaf fashioned into the form and size of the arrow's point they want, by way of pattern: if the smith makes the arrows as they would have them, and leaves them in lieu of the venison, they reward him with more deer's flesh; but if he neglects them, they are sure to do him a mischief; which proves that they profess integrity and gratitude, as well as a spirit of resentment and malice. That they are provident is likewise evident from their singular method of preserving flesh against a time of scarcity, which is by rubbing the inside of a hollow tree with a quantity of honey, filling it with flesh, and closing up the aperture with clay, which preserves it as effectually as if it was salted. They love to live under trees by the sides of rivers, where they fortify themselves against the attacks of wild beasts with boughs.

The Chingulays, or more civilized natives of Ceylon, live in houses that are low, built with sticks, or canes daubed over with clay, and covered with thatch. They have no chimnies, yet would willingly white wash their houses often; but this they dare not do, as the use of white wash is one of the king's peculiar privileges; and it is death by the law to infringe upon any of his prerogatives, however absurd or repugnant to public utility.

The natives sit cross-legged on the floor, which is usually matted. Cane bedsteads and stools, and a few china plates, brazen and earthen vessels for dressing food, or to serve as lamps, are the whole of their furniture. The men undress themselves, and sleep between two mats. The women and children lie upon the floor on a single mat, but keep their cloaths on. But what is the most extraordinary in so warm a climate, they keep a fire burning all night.

The Chingulays eat but little flesh through inclination: beef they are prohibited from touching, and even fowls they rather abstain from. They use spoons and ladles, but neither knives or forks. The husband sits down to meals alone, the wife being obliged to wait upon him with all imaginable obsequiousness; and when he has done, she presumes to sit down with her children. Like some other Asiatics, they do not touch the vessel they drink out of with their lips, but hold it at a distance, and pour the liquor into their mouths. Old people let their beards grow long, and wear a cap like a mitre: but with respect to the people in general, they wear a waistcoat either of blue or white callico, and another piece of callico about the middle, tied round with a sash. In the latter they wear their ornamental weapons, such as a hanger, with an enamelled hilt, and scabbard finely embossed. The people are obliged to go bare-footed, because none but the king is allowed to wear shoes and stockings. The women grease their hair with oil of cocoa-nuts, and comb it down behind. They wear a flowered waistcoat, and callico apron, and adorn themselves with pendants in their ears, bracelets upon their arms, necklaces about their necks, rings on their toes and fingers, and a girdle of silver wire; and, upon a visit, a silk hood is added to the rest of the dress.

The Chingulays are divided into five classes, viz. the hondrews or nobility, artists and mechanics, handicraftsmen of a lower order, slaves, and beggars.

They are, in general, so addicted to the use both of betel and tobacco, that they even smoke and chew in the night time; and when they are perfectly intoxicated, fall a singing till they drop asleep; a custom they are taught from their infancy.

Previous to the marriage ceremony, the man sends a friend to purchase the woman's cloaths, which she freely sells for a stipulated sum. In the evening he carries them to her, sleeps with her all night, and in the morning appoints the day of marriage, on which he provides an entertainment of two courses, for the friends of both parties. The feast is held at the bride's house, when the young couple eat out of the same dish, tie their thumbs together, sleep together that night, and, on the ensuing morning, depart for the bridegroom's habitation.

The design in purchasing the bride's cloaths is that she and her friends may be satisfied with respect to the

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man's circumstances, as she always asks as much for them as she thinks it is requisite that a young couple should possess upon their first entering upon the world, and becoming liable to the expences incurred by supporting a young family. Thus, what at first appears to be a ridiculous custom, is, in reality, a very prudential maxim.

Let reason teach what fashion fain would hide,
That Hymen's bands by prudence should be ty'd.
Venus in vain the wedded pair would crown,
If angry fortune on their union frown:
Soon will the flattering dream of bliss be o'er,
And cloy'd imagination cheat no more.
Then waking to the sense of lasting pain,
With mutual tears the nuptial couch they stain;
And that fond love which should afford relief,
Does but increase the anguish of their grief;
While both could easier their own sorrows bear,
Than the sad knowledge of each other's care.

They are permitted to part from each other whenever they please: but if there are any children, the man is obliged to maintain the boys, and the woman the girls. They are so fond of availing themselves of this law, that some have been known to change a dozen times before they have entirely suited their inclinations.

All the male Chingulays are allowed to command those who are within hearing to assist them upon any emergency in the apprehending of delinquents: but the women are not permitted to mention the king's name, under the severe penalty of having their tongues cut out.

Criminals in Ceylon are frequently impaled alive, or have stakes driven through their bodies. Some are hung upon trees, and many are worried by dogs, who are so accustomed to the horrid butchery, that, on the days appointed for the death of criminals, they, by certain tokens, run to the place of execution. But the most remarkable criminal punishment is by the king himself, who rides an elephant trained up on purpose, while the beast tramples the unhappy wretch to death, and tears him limb from limb.

There are other modes of punishing by fines and imprisonment, at the discretion of the judges. When the fine is decreed, the officers seize the culprit wherever they meet him, strip him naked, (his cloaths going as part of payment,) and oblige him to carry a large stone, the weight being daily increased by the addition of others that are smaller, till the money is either paid or remitted.

A creditor will sometimes go to the house of his debtor, and very gravely affirm, that if he does not discharge the debt he owes him immediately, he will destroy himself. This so greatly terrifies the other, that he instantly musters all the money he can, even sells his wife and children not to be deficient, and pays the sum demanded. This is owing to a law, which specifies, that if any man destroys himself on account of a debt not being discharged, the debtor shall immediately pay the money to the surviving relations, or forfeit his own life, unless he is able to redeem it by the payment of a very large sum to the king. Such has been the revengeful disposition of some, that they have put an end to their own existence, in order to overwhelm others, and thus wickedly gratified their malice at the expence of their lives.

A woman must not be beaten without permission from the king; but they may be made to carry heavy baskets of sand upon their heads as long as the punisher pleases, which is much more dreadful to them than a hearty drubbing. The circumstances of the children depend upon those of the mother; for if the mother is a free woman, they are free, but if she is a slave, they are always vassals.

The Chingulays worship both God and the devil. The first they think they ought, in gratitude, to pay adoration to, for the innumerable blessings he bestows upon them; and the latter they worship, that he should do them no mischief.

Inferiors salute their superiors by bowing their bodies and extending their arms, with the palms of their hands upwards; but the great only extend one hand, and not the head. The salutation of the women is by clapping their hands together, and then carrying them so closed to their foreheads.

The begging class of Chingulays are mountebanks in their way: the men beat a drum, the women dance, and both shew a variety of whimsical tricks. They beg, or rather amuse people, for their bread, in great companies. They are prohibited, by law, from touching the waters in wells or springs, and must use none but what is procured from rivers or ditches. If a nobleman or gentleman commits high treason, he is put to death, and his wives and daughters are delivered to some of these beggars, which is looked upon in so disgraceful a light, that they frequently destroy themselves to avoid any connections with persons esteemed so despicable.

Their method of teaching children to write here is very singular, as they instruct them by writing with sticks in the sand, and soft clay of the roads and streets.

The articles of commerce for exportation are cardamum, jaggory, oil, black lead, turmeric, betel nuts, musk, salt, rice, wax, pepper, coral, amber, pearls, &c. in return for which they import velvets, silks, china, red caps, spices, opium, China roots, sandal wood, lead, copper, tin, looking-glasses, callicos, bottles, camphire, &c.

Agriculture is followed here by the principal part of the natives. They tread the ground, or rather mud, in which they sow rice, with buffalos; but before they put the rice into it, they soak it in water till blades begin to sprout. They embank their wet marshy lands, in order to have foot-paths. When the rice is about six inches in height, they weed and transplant it. After reaping, the women gather and put it into a pit, where it is threshed, or rather trod by buffalos.

The Portuguese landed in Ceylon in 1505, and about twelve years after they established factories there, the reigning king permitting them to build forts. Upon his demise he declared the king of Portugal his heir; but in process of time, the Portuguese behaving with great cruelty and arrogance, the young king of Candy invited in the Dutch, in 1639, who, after a tedious war, at length, in the year 1655, subdued the Portuguese, and became masters of the coast and trade. The king, their ally, they drove into the mountains, and, with their usual gratitude, made him their tributary. The Dutch have, in subsequent years, committed many cruelties, and the natives frequently retaliate by making incursions among them, or murdering all they meet with at a distance from the forts.

The island was formerly divided into nine monarchies, but at present it is under the dominion of one king, whose court is kept in the center of the island, at a place called Digligy-Neur. The palace is but meanly built, though the gates are large, stately, and finely carved, and the window-frames made of ebony, and inlaid with silver. His elephants, troops, and spies are numerous, and his concubines many. The guards are commanded by Dutch and Portuguese renegade officers. He assumes great dignity, and demands much respect, which his subjects readily pay him, as they imagine that all their kings are immediately, upon their demise, turned into gods. He expects that Christians should salute him kneeling and uncovered, but requires nothing more of them. His title is Emperor of Ceylon, King of Candy, Prince of Onva and the Four Corles, Great Duke of the Seven Corles, Marquis of Duranura, Lord of the Sea-Ports and Fisheries of Pearls and Precious Stones, Lord of the Golden Sun, &c. &c. &c. His revenue consists in the Gifts and offerings of his subjects. His palaces are built upon almost inaccessible places for the greater security. No bridges are permitted to be erected over rivers or streams, or good roads to be made, to render the country as impassable as possible. None are allowed to approach his palace without a passport stamped on clay.

The troops are hereditary, and carry as weapons, swords, guns, pikes, bows, arrows, &c. They are subtle, but not courageous, and will not engage an enemy but by surprise, and when there is some manifest advantage in their own favour. It is so difficult to penetrate into the inland parts, and all the passes are so well guarded, that even the Dutch themselves are unacquainted with the greatest part of the island. The chief city, Candy, has nothing remarkable respecting it but its situation, being naturally fortified by the surrounding rocks: having formerly been burnt several times by the Portuguese, and the court being removed to Digligy-Neur, it retains very little of its former consequence.

The most remarkable places on and about the coast, are the Island of Manaar, Chialo, Columbo, Baticalo, Jaffnapatama, Negumbo, Point de Galle, Trincomale, Batchiarapalle, and the seven little islands of Ourature, Xho Deserta, Analativa, Caradiva, Pongardiva, Nainandiva, and Nindundiva.

Adam's Peak, which stands on the east of Colombo, is not only the highest mountain in Ceylon, but in all India. It receives its name from a tradition of the natives, that Adam was created and buried here. It is steep and craggy, and of a conical figure. At the summit there is a smooth stone, on which appears the impression of a large human foot, which the Chingulays affirm to have been made by Adam. This occasions them to pay a great adoration to it; and, at the commencement of every year vast multitudes clamber up to it, notwithstanding the ascent is so difficult, that iron spikes and chains have been fixed to the rocks, in order to facilitate their climbing. In another part of the mountain there is a lake, which the natives, with equal gravity, aver to have been made by the tears which they say Eve continued shedding, on account of the death of Abel, for 100 years successively.

SECTION XI.

MALDIVIA ISLANDS.

THE Maldives were the first islands discovered by the European navigators on their arrival in the Indies. They are situated about 500 miles from Ceylon, and reach from 1 deg. south, to 7 deg. north latitude. They extend about 600 miles in length, and are upwards of 100 in the broadest part. They are numerous, but many of them are only large hillocks of sand, and, from the barrenness of the soil, are entirely uninhabited. The whole country is divided into thirteen provinces, called Attolons, each of which contains many small islands, and is of a circular form, about 100 miles in circumference. These provinces all lie in a line, and are separated by channels, four of which are navigable for large ships, but are very dangerous, on account of the amazing rocks, that break the force of the sea, and raise prodigious surges. The currents run east and west alternately for six months, but the time of the change is uncertain; and sometimes they shift from north to south. At the bottom of these channels is found a substance like white coral, which, when boiled in cocoa water, greatly resembles sugar.

As these islands lie so near the equinoctial on both sides, the climate is exceeding sultry. The nights, however, are tolerably cool, and produce heavy dews, that are refreshing to the trees and vegetables. Their winter commences in April, and continues till October, during which they have heavy rains, and strong westerly winds; but they never have any frost. The summer begins in October, and continues six months, during which time the winds are easterly, and there not being any rain, the heat is so excessive as scarce to be borne.

In general the Maldives are very fertile, and, in particular, produce great quantities of millet, and another grain much like it, of both which they have two harvests every year. They have also several kinds of roots, that serve for food, particularly a sort of bread fruit, called *nellpou*, which grows wild, and in great abundance.

dance. The woods produce excellent fruits, as cocoas, citrons, pomegranates, and Indian figs. Their only animals for use are sheep and buffalos, except a few cows or bulls that belong to the king, and are imported from the continent; but these are only used at particular festivals. They have little domestic poultry, but are well supplied with prodigious quantities of wild fowl, which are caught in the woods, and sold at very low prices. They have also plenty of wild pigeons, ducks, rails, and birds resembling sparrow-hawks. The sea produces most kinds of fish, great quantities of which are exported from hence to Sumatra. Among the fish is one called a *cowrie*, the shells of which are used in many parts of the Indies instead of coin; and these are the same as those known in England by the name of blackamoor's teeth.

There is a very dangerous sort of snake that frequents the borders of the sea. The inhabitants are also greatly pestered with rats, dormice, pismires, and other sorts of vermin, which are very destructive to their provisions, fruit, and other perishable commodities; for which reason they build their granaries on piles in the sea, at some distance from the shore; and most of the king's granaries are built in the same manner.

The natives are very robust, of an olive complexion, and well featured. They are naturally ingenious, and apply themselves with great industry to various manufactures, particularly the making of silk and cotton. They are cautious and sharp in trading, and courageous and well skilled in arms.

The dress of the common people is only a piece of cotton fastened round their waist, except on festival days, when they wear cotton or silk jerkins, with waistcoats, the sleeves of which reach only to the elbows. The better sort tie a piece of cloth between their legs and round the waist, next to which they have a piece of blue or red cotton cloth, that reaches to the knees. Within a girdle, on the left side, they keep their money and betel, and on the right side a knife. They set a great value on this instrument, from its being their only weapon; for none but the king's officers and soldiers are permitted to wear any other.

The women are fairer than the men, and, in general, of a very agreeable disposition. They wear a coat of cotton or silk, that reaches from the waist to the ancles, over which they have a long robe of taffaty, or fine cotton, that extends from the shoulders to the feet, and is fastened round the neck by two gilt buttons. Their hair is black, which is esteemed a great ornament; and to obtain this, they keep their daughters heads shaved till they are eight or nine years of age, leaving only a little hair on the forehead to distinguish them from the boys. They wash their heads and hair in water to make it thick and long, and let it hang loose that the air may dry it, after which they perfume it with an odoriferous oil. When this is done, they stroke all the hair backwards from the forehead, and tie it behind in a knot, to which they add a large lock of man's hair, and the whole is curiously ornamented with a variety of flowers.

The houses of the common people are built of cocoa wood, and covered with leaves, sewed one within another. But the better sort have their houses built of stone, which is taken from under the flats and rocks in the following manner. Among other trees in this island is one called *candou*, which is exceeding soft, and when dry, and sawed into planks, is much lighter than cork. The natives, who are excellent swimmers, dive under water, and having fixed upon a stone fit for their purpose, they fasten a strong rope to it: after this they take a plank of the *candou* wood, which, having a hole bored in it, is put on the rope, and forced down quite to the stone: they then run a number of other boards till the light wood rises up to the top, dragging the stone along with it. By this contrivance the natives got up the cannon and anchors of a French ship that was cast away here in the beginning of the last century.

The Maldivians are in general a very polite people, particularly those on the Island of Male; but they are

very libidinous, and fornication is not considered any crime: neither must any person offer insult to a woman that has been guilty of misconduct previous to marriage. Every man is permitted to have three wives, if he can maintain them, but not more.

They are very abstemious in their diet, their principal food consisting of roots made into meal, and baked. They sit cross-legged at their meals, in the same manner as in other eastern countries. The floor on which they sit is covered with a fine mat; and, instead of table-cloths, they use banana leaves. Their dishes are chiefly of china, all vessels of gold and silver being prohibited by law: they are made round, with a cover, over which is a piece of silk to keep out the ants. They take up their victuals with their fingers, and in so careful a manner as not to let any fall; and if they have occasion to spit, they rise from the table and walk out. They do not drink till they have finished their meal, for they consider that as a mark of rudeness; and they are very cautious of eating in the presence of strangers.

These people are naturally very cleanly, and when they rise in the morning immediately wash themselves, rub their eyes with oil, and black their eyebrows.

Though they are Mahometans, yet they preserve many Pagan customs: for when crossed at sea, they pray to the king of the winds: and in every island there is a place where those who have escaped danger make offerings to him of little vessels made for the purpose, in which they put fragrant woods, flowers, and other perfumes, and then turn the vessel adrift to the mercy of the waves. Such are the superstitious notions they have of this airy king, that they dare not spit to the windward for fear of offending him; and all their vessels being devoted to him, they are kept equally clean with their mosques. They impute crosses, sickness, and death, to the devil; and in a certain place make him offerings of flowers and banquets, in order to pacify him.

Their mosques are very neat buildings, and made of stone well cemented: each of them is situated in the center of a square, and round them they bury their dead. The mosque has three doors, each ascended by a flight of steps. The walls within are wainscotted, and the ceiling is of wood beautifully variegated. The floor is of polished stone, covered with mats and tapestry; and the ceiling and wainscoting are firmly joined without either nails or pegs.

Each mosque has its priest, who, besides the public duties of his office, teaches the children to read and write the Maldivian language, which is a radical tongue. He also instructs them in the Arabic language, and is rewarded for these services by the parents.

Those who are very religious go to the mosque five times a day; and, before they enter it, they wash their feet, hands, ears, eyes, and mouth; nor will they neglect doing this on any occasion whatever. Those who do not chuse to go to the mosque may say their prayers at home; but if they are known to omit doing one or the other, they are treated with the greatest contempt, as no person will either eat or converse with them.

They keep their sabbath on the Friday, which is celebrated with great festivity; and the same is observed on the day of every new moon. They have likewise several other festivals in the course of the year.

When two persons intend entering into the marriage state, the man gives information of his design to the *pandiaré*, or governor, who asks him if he is willing to have the woman proposed: on his answering in the affirmative, the *pandiaré* questions the parents as to their consent: if they approve of it the woman is then brought, and the parties are married in the presence of their friends and relations. A woman cannot part from her husband without his consent, though a man may divorce his wife.

On the death of any one the corpse is washed by a person of the same sex, of which there are several in each island appointed for that purpose. After this is done,

done, it is wrapped up in cotton, with the right hand placed on the ear, and the left on the thigh. It is then laid on the right side in a coffin of candou wood, and carried to the place of interment by fix relations or friends, and followed by the neighbours, who attend without being invited. The grave is covered with a large piece of silk or cotton, which, after the interment, becomes the property of the priest. The corpse is laid in the grave with the face towards Mahomet's tomb; and after it is deposited, the grave is filled up with white sand sprinkled with water. In the procession both to and from the grave, the relations scatter shells for the benefit of the poor, and give pieces of gold and silver to the priest, in proportion to the circumstances of the deceased. The priest sings continually during the ceremony, and when the whole is over, the relations invite the company to a feast. They inclose their graves with wooden rails, for they consider it as a sin for any person to walk over them; and they pay such respect to the bones of the dead, that no persons dare touch them, not even the priests themselves. They make little difference in their habit on these occasions: the mourners only go bareheaded to the grave, and continue so for a few days after the interment.

If a person dies at sea, the body, after being washed, is put into a coffin, with a written paper mentioning his religion, and requesting those who may meet with the corpse to give it decent interment. They then sing over it, and, after having compleated their ceremonies, they place it on a plank of candou wood, and commit it to the waves.

Male, the most considerable of the Maldivé islands, is the residence of the king. It is situated in the center of the rest, and is about five miles in circumference. The king has here a magnificent palace, in which his beds are hung like hammocks between two pillars ornamented with gold; and when he lies down, he is rocked to sleep by his attendants. His usual dress consists of a coat made of fine white cloth or cotton, with white and blue edgings, fastened with buttons of solid gold: under this is a piece of red embroidered rapsery that reaches down to his heels, and is fastened with a large silk girdle fringed, and a great gold chain before, with a lock formed of the most precious and valuable stones. He wears a scarlet cap on his head, which is a colour so esteemed that no other person dare presume to use it. This cap is laced with gold, and on the top of it is a large gold button with a precious stone. The grandees and soldiers wear long hair, but the king's head is shaved once a week: he goes bare-legged, but wears sandals of gilt copper, which must not be worn by any other persons except those of the royal family.

When he goes abroad his dignity is particularly distinguished by a white umbrella, which no other person, except strangers, are permitted to use. He has three pages near his person, one of whom carries his fur, another his sword and buckler, and a third a box of betel and areka, which he almost constantly chews.

When the queen goes abroad, all the women in their respective districts meet her with flowers, fruits, &c. She is attended by a great number of female slaves, some of whom go before to give notice to the men to keep out of the way; and four ladies carry a veil of white silk over her head that reaches to the ground. She and her ladies frequently bathe in the sea for their health, for the convenience of which they have a place on the shore close to the water, which is inclosed, and the top of it covered with white cotton.

The principal part of the nobility and gentry live in the north parts of this island, for the convenience of being near the court: and so much is this division

esteemed, that when the king banishes a criminal he is thought to be sufficiently punished by being sent to the south.

The king's guards consist of 600, who are commanded by his grandees; and he has considerable magazines of armour, cannon, and several sorts of ammunition. His revenue consists chiefly of a number of islands appropriated to the crown, with certain taxes on the various productions of others: in the money paid to purchase titles and offices, and for licences to wear fine cloaths.

All the ambergris found in this country (which produces more than any other part of the Indies) is also the property of the king; and so narrowly is it watched that whoever is detected in converting it to his own use, is punished with the loss of his right hand.

The government here is absolute monarchy, for every thing depends on the king's pleasure. Each atalon, or province, has a naybe, or governor, who is both a priest and a doctor of the law. He not only presides over the inferior priests, and is vested with the management of all religious affairs, but he is likewise entrusted with the administration of justice, both in civil and criminal cases. They are, in fact, so many judges, and make four circuits every year throughout their respective jurisdictions.

The punishments for crimes are various: if a man is murdered the wife cannot prosecute the criminal; but if the deceased has left any children, the judge obliges him to maintain them till they are of age, when they may either prosecute or pardon the murderer. The stealing any thing valuable is punished with the loss of a hand, and for trifling matters they are banished to the southern islands. An adulteress is punished by having her hair cut off, and those guilty of perjury pay a pecuniary mulct. Notwithstanding the law makes homicide death, yet a criminal is never condemned to die unless it is expressly ordered by the king; in which case he sends his own soldiers to execute the sentence.

The principal articles exported from these islands are, cocoa-nuts, cowries and tortoise-shell, the last of which is exceeding beautiful, and not to be met with in any other place, except the Philippine Islands. The articles imported are, iron, steel, spices, china, rice, &c. all which are engrossed by the king, who sells them to his subjects at his own price.

Their money is silver, and of one sort only, called lorrins, each of which is about the value of 8d. It is about two inches in length, and folded, the king's name being set upon the folds in Arabic characters. They sometimes use the shells of cowries, instead of small change, 1200 of which make a lorrin; but in their own markets they frequently barter one thing for another. Their gold and silver is all imported from abroad, and is current here by weight, as in many other parts of the Indies.

These islands are happily situated for producing mutual commerce to the respective inhabitants: for tho' the thirteen attolons, or provinces, are in the same climate, and all of them very fertile, yet they produce such different commodities, that the people in one cannot live without what is found in another. The inhabitants have likewise so divided themselves, as greatly to enhance this commercial advantage; for all the weavers live in one island, the goldsmiths in another; and so on of the different manufactures. In order, however, to make the communication easy, these artificers have small boats built high on both sides, in which they work, sleep and eat, while sailing from one island to another to expose their goods to sale, and sometimes they are out a considerable time before they return to their fixed habitations.

ISLANDS OF ASIA UNDER THE DOMINION OF THE TURKS.

THE Asiatic Islands belonging to the Turks are scattered about the Archipelago, so called from the Greek words *Archos* and *Pelagos*, the first signifying chief, and the latter a sea, this being the chief sea in these parts. Through the oppression of the Ottoman government, they maintain but little of their former opulence and importance. We shall describe them in order as follows.

T E N E D O S.

No one of the islands of the Archipelago has been more famed in the historian's page, and the poet's numbers, than Tenedos, though it is one of the smallest in this Archipelago. It lies in 40 deg. north latitude, and 26 degrees east longitude, exactly opposite to Troy, from the shore of which it is about two leagues distant, and, indeed, formed the Trojan harbour. It was behind this island that the Grecians concealed their fleet, in order to delude the Trojans, by making them suppose that they had raised the siege, and gone home.

After the fall of Troy, the inhabitants of this island were reduced to a state of the utmost indigence. At length they were conquered by the Persians, and afterwards alternately subdued by the Lacedemonians, Romans, and Turks. It is near twenty miles in circumference, and formerly had a considerable city, and two havens. It was likewise celebrated for a temple dedicated to Apollo Smynthius. The only antiquities now to be seen on this island, are the ruins of the granaries built by the emperor Justinian: they were 280 feet in length, and 90 in breadth. This island produces the best and most delicious wine in all the Levant, which is called Muscadine, and is held in the highest repute both by Europeans and Asiatics. Tenedos is surrounded by rocks, and contains several towns, or rather villages, the principal of which has the same name as the island, is inhabited by Greeks, and adorned with many fountains of white marble, being made of stones brought from the ruins of Troy. A strong castle, flanked with square towers, stands on the north of the town, close to the sea; besides which, two round towers, and a battery of 20 guns, defend the haven. To the south of the port there is another castle, which commands the town and harbour, and is consequently of the utmost importance to the place. The tombs of Marpesia, queen of the Amazons, and of the hero Achilles, are shewn here.

L E S B O S, OR M I T Y L E N E.

Lesbos, one of the principal islands of the Archipelago, is about 60 miles from Tenedos, and near 8 from the continent of Asia. It lies under the 39th degree of north latitude, and between the 26th and 27th degrees of east longitude, being about 70 miles in length, and 186 in circumference. The chief cities were,

Arisba, which was entirely destroyed by an earthquake.

Pyrrha, on the western coast towards Greece, which met with the same fate as the former, as did Hiera and Agamis.

Eressos was situated on the southern promontory of the island, and only famous for having been the birth-place of the celebrated Theophrastus, who succeeded Aristotle in his Peripatetic academy.

Antissa, according to Strabo, was formerly an island of itself, and was called Antissa from being opposite to Lesbos, which was then known by the name of Issa. This city was destroyed by the Romans, on account of its disaffection to their government.

No. 28.

Methymna. This city was the place of Arion's nativity, and was in great repute for the excellent wine which the inhabitants made.

Mitylene, the metropolis of Lesbos. This city was not more famed for the fertility of the circumjacent country, and the uncommon magnificence of its buildings, than for the number of considerable personages to whom it gave birth. Among these were Pittacus, one of the seven Grecian sages; Alceus, the lyric poet; Sappho, the celebrated poetess; Terpander, the musician; Hellanicus, the historian; Callias, the critic, &c. &c. &c. Indeed, Mitylene was deemed so much the seat of the Muses, and the center of politeness, that Aristotle resided in it two years, to partake of the elegant conversation of its inhabitants.

The city, after having revolted from the Athenians, was greatly injured by the Peloponnesian war. It was subsequently destroyed by the Romans; and at its siege the famous Julius Cæsar made his first campaign, and greatly signalized his courage. Being afterwards rebuilt, Pompey restored it to its ancient franchises. The emperor Trajan adorned it with many elegant structures, and from his own name called it Trajanopolis. This island is naturally exceeding fertile, and was celebrated by the ancients for producing, in great abundance, all the necessaries and delicacies of life. The wine, in particular, is excellent, and as much celebrated by physicians for its salubrity, as admired by the voluptuous for its admirable flavour.

So immoral was the character of the Lesbians, that at length it became proverbial: for the Greek saying, *To live like a Lesbian*, implied to live the most abandoned and profligate life that it was possible for the mind to conceive.

Lesbos is at present but thinly peopled, and scarce any thing is to be seen but the fragments of its former magnificence. However, 130 small villages are still reckoned, and several harbours, particularly Castri, built on the ruins of the ancient Mitylene, which is situated on the east side of the island, has an excellent port, and is defended by a strong castle.

Cos-dogg is a town built on the spot where a city anciently stood, called the Mounts of Ida. The inhabitants are principally Greeks; but the neighbouring mountains are infested by a great number of Turkish robbers, who are some of the most bloody and merciless villains existing.

The trade of this island consists principally of wine, grain, fruits, cheese, butter, pitch, &c. The duties paid to the Ottoman Porte amount to 18,000 piastres, and the inhabitants are computed at about 20,000. The houses at present are low and mean built, and the people miserably poor. They are, however, as much debauched as when they lived in greater affluence. Magazines are here kept, to furnish the Turkish galleys with stores, which are employed by the Porte to cruise against the pirates that infest some of these islands. The governor is a *cadi*; but the troops on the island are commanded by an *aga* of the janissaries.

T H E C A R E E N E R S.

The Careeners, or Spalmadori Islands, are small, and being situated north of Lesbos, the pirates put in here to careen, the situation being the best imaginable for watching the ships that trade to and from Constantinople.

C H I O S.

Chios, or Scio, which lies in 39 deg. north latitude, and 27 deg. east longitude, is called by the Turks Sakisaduci.

Sakifaduci. It is situated opposite to the coast of Ionia, and has a coast of 80 miles in circuit, being divided into upper and lower ground; the former terminating towards the north, at Cape Apanomeria; and the latter towards the south, at Cape Mastico. This island is mountainous and rocky; yet the plains produce corn, wine, oil, honey, fruits, and gums; though the fertility is much impeded by the great scarcity of water. The country is fertile and populous, and the inhabitants opulent. The men are well made, the women handsome, and both sexes so much inclined to mirth, that they think all the time lost which is not employed in singing, dancing, feasting, revelling, or gallantry.

A considerable commerce is carried on here; but the harbour is bad, and, indeed, dangerous; yet the ships going to and coming from Constantinople rendezvous at this place: and a Turkish Squadron is kept here to protect the merchant ships, and annoy the pirates.

Scio, the capital, is a handsome city. The houses are elegant, and have grand terraces, and windows glazed with red and green glass. The Venetians took it in 1694, and greatly embellished it, but lost it the year following. It is two miles in circumference, and environed by several beautiful gardens. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Greek Church, or Roman Catholics, and have several churches and monasteries, which remain unmolested by the Turks, who likewise permit them openly to profess their religion.

The citadel was erected by the Genoese, in order to defend the entrance of the harbour. It is guarded by a Turkish garrison. The esplanade, or space between the citadel and first houses of the town, was formed by the Venetians, who, for that purpose, demolished all the houses in the vicinity of the castle. On this esplanade, which presents a most pleasing appearance, there is a fine fountain in the Turkish stile. We shall annex a beautiful view of the whole. Part of the citadel appears to the left of this picturesque scene.

About two leagues from the city, in the midst of the mountains, is a convent, very considerable for its vast revenues.

At Scio they manufacture silk, and gold and silver stuffs. There is a branch of commerce peculiar to this island; this is the produce of the *lentisk* trees, which furnish the gum called *mastic*, of which the Turkish and Grecian ladies consume great quantities. They continually chew this drug, which gives an agreeable aromatic flavour to their breath, but is very injurious to the beauty of the teeth.

It is to be observed, that Scio was one of the seven cities that contended for the honour of having given birth to Homer, and their coin formerly was stamped with his image.

The natives of this island are, by their neighbours in general, deemed a very stupid and ignorant set of people. The Turks call them *Prasnios*, which signifies *shallow wretches*, and have a proverb concerning them, which may be thus translated:

Before a wife Sciot shall ever be seen,
Be sure you shall meet with a horse that is green.

The whole island contains 30 villages, 300 churches, 2000 Latins, 10,000 Turks, and 100,000 Greeks. In time of peace it is governed by a *cadi*, with a stipend of 500 aspers per day: but in war time a *bashaw* is sent from Constantinople to take upon him the supreme command. The Greek bishop is immensely rich, having, besides the above-mentioned 300 churches, many chapels and monasteries under his jurisdiction. The chief of the latter, called *Neamoni*, or New Solitude, is about five miles from Scio, contains 150 monks, and pays to the government 50,000 crowns annually, which it can well afford, its yearly revenue being 50,000 crowns, or an eighth of the produce of the whole island.

Next to the capital, the following are the most considerable towns in the island.

Callimacha, the chief mastic town, contains 600 churches, which have 30 subordinate chapels, and a nunnery belonging to them.

Pergi, which contains a castle, 30 churches, and 2000 inhabitants.

Mefta. This town is famous for the nectar wine which its neighbouring vineyards produce.

Armolia is a mastic town, defended by a strong castle.

Volista is famous for its silk manufactory. It contains 300 houses, 1500 inhabitants, and is defended by a castle, which was erected by the celebrated Belisarius, who experienced the most astonishing reverse of fortune, and, from the glorious conqueror, became the public beggar.

St. Helena, of the Archipelago, is situated on a rock, and contains two churches, a chapel, and about 200 inhabitants.

Cambia has a castle upon a rock, and is celebrated for its pines, with which the Turks build many galleys, and for a hot medicinal spring.

Cardamita is situated in a very rich territory, which, in particular, produces 170 tons of excellent wine annually. Many coins of Constantine the Great have been dug up in the neighbourhood. A spring of water issues from a rock at no great distance, which, in its fall, forms a beautiful cascade. The town was anciently famed for the temple of Neptune, near Port Dolphin, the ruins of which are yet to be seen.

While this island was under the dominion of the Venetians and the Genoese, the natives were permitted to be governed by their own laws; but since the Turks conquered it, the poor people are both despised and oppressed.

Thus conquest gives the bloody power to kill,
Or the black privilege of using ill.
Who heaves a sigh, if freedom be the cause,
Is by the victor deem'd to break the laws.
On godlike liberty who casts a glance,
Falls the sad victim of the reeking lance.
Th' oppress'd in silent sorrow must remain,
Nor dare of their hard destiny complain.

P S A R A.

PSARA, a very small island to the westward of Chios, is not remarkable for any thing but a breed of asses, who die immediately after being carried from the island; but are exceeding strong, hardy, and long lived, while they remain in their native place.

Near this island are some smaller islands called *Careens*, which, like those already mentioned, are frequented by Pirates.

S A M O S.

SAMOS lies in 37 degrees north latitude, and 27 degrees east longitude, at the distance of 40 miles from Chios, and opposite to the south coast of Ionia. It is about 80 miles in circumference, and the see of an archbishop: but this prelate is exceeding poor; for he is obliged to pay annually so large a stipend to the court of Constantinople, that he scarce leaves himself any thing. It was formerly a commonwealth; and is naturally so very fertile, that when Greece was at the summit of her glory, it was deemed, though less than many, of as much importance as any of the islands of the Archipelago. The trade at present consists of several sorts of wines, which are admirable, a superior kind of onions and garlic, fine earthen ware, raw silk, oil, honey, saffron, fruits, drugs, minerals, emery, ochre, black dye, &c. Notwithstanding the natural richness of this island, the natives are so much oppressed by the Turks, and plundered by the pirates, who infest the coast, that they are in general miserably poor. The inhabitants are about 12,000, principally Greeks. The capitation tax which they pay amounts to about 6400 crowns.

Engraved for BANKES'S New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.



View of SCIO anciently called CHIOS, one of the most celebrated Cities in the Archipelago.



Vestiges of the TEMPLE of JUNO at SAMOS, an Asiatic Island (under the Dominion of the Turks.

Hawkins sculp.

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crowns, and the customs are farmed at 10,000 more. The governor, who is an aga of the Janissaries, collects about as much again for himself, and makes himself likewise heir to every Greek who dies without male issue; taking money, house, goods, and indeed every thing but the garden, which is left to the quiet possession of the daughters.

The chief town Samos, which, as well as the island itself, the Turks called Suffan, is now reduced to a poor mean village: and to add to its wretchedness, the pirates frequently plunder it: but the noble fragments of its antient splendor, which still remain, excite at once admiration and melancholy in the beholder.

Vati, though formerly a splendid city, is now only a mean village, containing about 300 miserable houses, and a few wretched inhabitants.

Cora contains about 600 houses, but since it was plundered by the Venetians many of them are gone to ruin, and more are uninhabited.

The rest of the towns are as miserable; and, upon the whole, the island presents little besides but scenes that are shocking to the imagination.

The Hermitage of Cacoperata is highly revered by the Greeks: it is a horrid cavern, with a rocky ascent to it of about 500 yards, narrow, steep, and craggy; but they are very fond of such dismal and romantic situations.

Samos is celebrated in history for having given birth to that admirable philosopher Pythagoras.

The city of Samos was formerly very magnificent, as we may judge from its ruins, which are still superb monuments of its antient grandeur. It was famous for a noble temple built to the honour of Juno, some vestiges of which still remain.

NICARIA, OR ICARIA.

NICARIA lies in 37 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 26 deg. 30 min. east long. is about 70 miles in circumference, and rocky, mountainous and barren. It has no harbours for shipping, and consequently must be without commerce. The Samians say, that when the two islands were made, all the good materials were exhausted in making Samos, and that nothing but rubbish remained for Nicaria. Some benefits, however, arise to the natives from these disadvantages, for the Turks do not think it worth their while to oppress them, nor the pirates to plunder them.

The inhabitants, who are about 3000 in number, have wine, sheep, goats, and aromatic herbs; they row their boats, and do other work quite naked, for fear of wearing out the few cloaths they are able to procure.

A ridge of mountains parts the island. There are but two towns and a few scattered houses, and the natives are very lazy, of a savage disposition, and speak a most barbarous dialect of the Greek. They have a kind of bishop, 24 priests, and a few chapels. The people are strong and well made, but ill favoured and nasty, and have in general a bad character.

PATMOS, OR PATHMOS.

THE island of Patmos lies in 37 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 26 deg. 45 min. east long. is 10 miles south-west of Nicaria, and only about 18 in circumference; nevertheless it has several convenient harbours, which give it the advantage over many other of the Levant islands. De la Scala, its principal port, is deemed the very best in the Archipelago. Sapsila and Cricou are likewise excellent harbours, but they are all terribly infested by pirates, which has obliged the inhabitants of Sapsila to evacuate the town, and retire up a neighbouring hill to the monastery of St. John, which is at once a religious house and fortress, has an annual revenue of 6000 crowns, and maintains 100 monks. Though the use of bells is prohibited in all other parts of the Turkish dominions, yet the monks of this monastery are permitted to have two large ones.

St. John the Evangelist was banished by the Romans to this island, and here composed his Apocalypse or Revelation; the place is consequently in great esteem both by Turks and Christians. St. John's hermitage is situated upon a rock between Port de la Scala and the monastery; the entrance is hewn out of the solid rock, and leads to the chapel, which is almost 44 feet in length, 15 in breadth, and is covered with a gothic roof.

The management of this island is committed to the care of two Greek officers, as no Turks reside upon it. The taxes produce about 10,000 crowns annually. The houses are neater than those of most of the other islands, and the chapels are well built, arched, and about 250 in number. It is remarkable, that though the island does not contain above 300 men, yet the women are near 6000 in number: the latter are good tempered and handsome, but spoil their faces by using a prodigious quantity of paint: however, the sweetness of their dispositions makes amends for all faults, and surpasses beauty.

CLAROS.

Claros lies very near Patmos, is mountainous, about 40 miles in circumference, has two sea-ports, a town and castle, to which it gives name, yet was never famous for any thing but a magnificent temple dedicated to Apollo.

LEROS.

THE island of Leros, Lerio, or Oleron, lies to the south of Patmos and north of Claros, is 18 miles in circumference, and produces abundance of aloes; Greeks and Turks inhabit it, but are not numerous. It contains but one small town, a few scattered hamlets, and a small number of monasteries. Upon a hill are some noble ruins, in particular about twenty superb marble pillars that remain entire, and which are, perhaps, the remnants of the temple of Diana, on whose account this island was formerly famous.

THE MANDRIA ISLANDS.

THE Mandria Islands are a cluster of small islands to the eastward of Leros; the center island is by far the largest, but none of them are inhabited, except by the pirates that infest those parts, and who are some of the most savage wretches existing, murdering the crews of all the ships they are able to overpower.

Bold were the men, who on the ocean first
Spread their new sails, when shipwreck was the worst;
More dangers now from man alone we find,
Than from the rocks, the billows, or the wind.

STANCHIO, OR COOS.

Stanchio, which lies in 36 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 27 deg. 30 min. east long. is opposite to the coast of Doris, 80 miles from Samos, 70 in circumference, has a fruitful soil, and towards the east gradually rises into mountains; it is rich in pasture, wines, fruit, turpentine, cypress, medicinal and other plants, &c.

Cos, the capital, is spacious, populous, well built, and strongly fortified: it is situated on the eastern coast, and was formerly famous for a superb temple of Æsculapius, as the island itself was for the birth of the celebrated Hippocrates, whose house is still shewn in the town of Harangues; but both these celebrated physicians owed their fame more to their recommending temperance than to any of the medicines they discovered.

Cos was celebrated for some light garments made here, and called Vestimenta Coa; but was still more famous for the statue of Venus, made here by Apelles, who was a native of this little island; and hence originated the notion of Venus's rising out of the sea.

This fine piece of workmanship was first lodged in a stately temple, but Augustus carried it to Rome; and

to make the superstitious people some amends for its loss, their tribute was entirely remitted. The harbour is good, and well secured from pirates.

S T A M P A L I A.

THIS island lies about 40 miles from the coast of Anatolia, is 60 miles in circumference, has a town of its own name on the south coast, two harbours, and was antiently celebrated for its temple of Apollo. It has a church or two subject to a bishop.

C A R P A N T H U S.

CARPANTHUS, or Scarpanto, on the south coast of Doris, lies in 35 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 27 deg. 40 min. east long. is between Cérat and Rhodes, and antiently gave name to the Carpanthian Sea. It is near 80 miles in circumference, but is mountainous, barren, and but thinly inhabited. It has no town except Scarpanto, whose harbour is tolerable, but terribly infested by the pirates.

ISLANDS IN THE GULPH OF SMYRNA.

THESE islands, which are five in number, are small and uninhabited; one is called Long Island, or Isola de Eglere, that is, Church Island; it is 10 miles long, rather narrow, and contains the ruins of a magnificent temple. Another of them the Greeks say formerly contained many elegant buildings, of which no vestiges are at present left, but an apartment supported by four pillars, the whole being cut out of the solid rock; from this island a causeway formerly joined to the main land, but it is now entirely ruined. Some have imagined this to be the Clazomene of the antients, but whether the conjecture is right we cannot determine.

R H O D E S.

RHODES extends from 35 deg. 50 min. to 36 deg. 30 min. north lat. and from 28 deg. 20 min. to 28 deg. 44 min. east long. being 75 miles east from Candia, 8 from the Lycian coast, and about 120 in circumference. This island hath been long famed in history under various names, and its inhabitants very early were deemed a maritime people. When attacked by the Greeks, the Rhodians called in the Romans to their assistance; who, according to their usual custom, drove away the Rhodians's enemies, and repaid themselves for their trouble, by seizing their country, and the property of the natives: after which it underwent various revolutions. It was taken by the Venetians in 1124. The Turks conquered it in 1283, but were driven out of it by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem in 1308: however, Soliman the Magnificent attacked it with an army of 200,000 men, and 300 ships, and took it, Jan. 1, 1523, after the Rhodians had lost upwards of 93,000 of their men, and the Turks a much greater number. After this misfortune most of the Rhodians quitted their country, so that the island became very much depopulated; the Turks, however, shewed so great a respect to the knights of Rhodes, that they suffered them to keep their houses, effects, coats of arms, statues, inscriptions, &c. and granted very considerable privileges to such as would come and settle there, which drew back some of the Rhodians, and many of the Greeks; so that Rhodes, at present, is as populous and flourishing as Turkish tyranny will permit any place to be in the Ottoman territories.

The metropolis of Rhodes is called by the same name, and was always esteemed a place of considerable strength. At present, though its former splendor is much decayed, it is a handsome city, and a good seaport; the situation at the side of a hill is delightful; it is about three miles in circuit, fortified by a treble wall and castle, though they are but in bad repair; the streets are capacious and well paved, particularly

that of St. John, which is paved with beautiful marble; the houses are elegantly built in the Italian taste, and the markets well supplied with all kinds of provisions. It has two harbours, a large one for ships of all nations, and a smaller for the Turkish galleys only, a squadron of which are always kept here to cruise against the Maltese ships. This port is shut up every night with a chain, and near it is a fine piazza adorned with stately trees, at the extremity of which are the arsenal and dock. The church of St. John, a most noble structure, is converted into a mosque. Many other churches, the palace formerly belonging to the grand master, the houses of the knights, &c. are still magnificent fabricks.

This city was formerly celebrated for the learning and politeness of its inhabitants, and the numerous academies for various arts and sciences, which were kept open at the public expence; but at present, literature meets here with the same treatment that it does in most other parts of the Turkish dominions.

The soil of Rhodes is so fertile and rich, that it produces every delicacy which man can wish to enjoy; and the air is the most pure and serene that he could desire to breathe. Indeed, such is the beauty of the country, and delightfulness of the climate, as to give occasion to the poets to feign that Apollo rained golden showers upon it, and blessed it with his most prolific and salubrious beams.

The glorious ruler of the morning, So,
But looks on flowers, and straight they grow;
And when his beams their light unfold,
Ripens the dullest earth, and warms it into gold.

Hence the inhabitants erected the celebrated Colossus, one of the wonders of the world, to the honour of Apollo, or the sun. This prodigious statue was made of brass, 70 cubits, or about 123 feet in height, proportionably big in every part. It stood astride over the haven, so that ships could sail in and out between its legs. In one hand it held a light-house, and in the other a sceptre; and its head represented a golden sun. The distance between the two feet was 100 yards; and two men could scarce, with extended arms, embrace its thumb. After having stood 66 years, it was overturned by an earthquake: and though the Rhodians collected, from the various Grecian states, a prodigious sum to defray the expences of repairing it, yet the money was embezzled, and the image was suffered to lay on the ground for the space of 894 years, when the Saracens took the city, and sold it as old brass to a Jew, who loaded 900 camels with it; the whole weight being 720,000 lb. avoirdupoise. This wonderful work was made by Clares, a native of Rhodes, who was twelve years in completing it. Just on the spot where the feet stood, a castle on one side, and a tower on the other, were erected, and are standing at present.

The modern Christian inhabitants of this fine island are very poor, and are not suffered to live within the walls of the city, which privilege is, however, granted to the Jews. The principal manufactures are soap, tapestry, and camblers; but the city is a mart for all the commodities and productions of the Levant, yet Rhodes is kept merely in opposition to the Christians, as it does not remit any thing to the Grand Seigneur, the Turkish bashaw being allowed the whole of its revenues, to maintain the galleys, the garrison, and himself.

C Y P R U S.

THIS celebrated island lies between 34 and 36 deg. north lat. and between 33 and 36 deg. east long. in the most easterly part of the Levant, and is the largest of all the islands of Asia Minor, being 200 miles in length, 46 in breadth where widest, and about 30 from the continent. The ancients had many names for it, in particular they called it Macaria, on account of its surprising fertility; and Cyprus, the name it still bears, from the

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the abundance of cypress-trees which it produced. The first mention we have of it in history is the conquest of it by Cyrus, who found it divided into nine petty kingdoms, each governed by its own sovereign. The Ptolemies of Egypt then subjugated it. The Romans, and, after them, the emperors of Constantinople, possessed it. In 1191 it was conquered by Richard I. king of England, and given by him to Guy of Lusignan, whose successors reigned over it till 1480, when the Venetians seized it, who remained masters of it till 1570, when it was conquered by the Turks, who still continue in possession of it.

The soil produces all kinds of grain, wines, oil, sugar, cotton, honey, saffron, wood, metals, minerals, plants, drugs, flowers, &c. all excellent in their kinds. It was formerly populous and opulent, but at present is but poor and thinly inhabited, which is chiefly owing to two causes, viz. the tyranny of the Turkish government, and the swarms of locusts which for some ages past have infested it, to the frequent destruction of the produce of the earth. Their wool and cotton manufactures are the best in the east, but the silk is very indifferent. By one of the Turkish bashaws all the sugar canes in the island were destroyed. The people, however, have a great traffic in a delicious bird, which they catch in the months of September and October, and pickle in vast quantities to export to Venice, where they are much prized, and purchased at a high price by the voluptuous.

It was formerly divided into 12 districts, each containing a large city, and the whole including 800 villages. The inhabitants were formerly a most debauched people, and, according to the most authentic accounts, their inclinations are as depraved as ever; but the Turkish government compels them to a more reserved behaviour, and obliges them, at least, to act with an outward appearance of decency. The present inhabitants are chiefly Greeks, who dress after the Italian fashion, but retain their own religion and customs. The people of this island were converted to Christianity by St. Paul and St. Barnabas, the latter of whom was a native of Cyprus. It gave birth to the poet Asclepiades, Xenophon, Zeno, Apollonius, the famous bishop Epiphanius, and several other great men.

Cyprus has no considerable rivers, but some famous mountains, particularly Olympus, whose height and extent are astonishing. On Mount Olympus, at the distance of every league, there is a Greek monastery; and a fountain said to be erected by the empress Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great.

Hardly any vestiges remain of the ancient city of Salamis, formerly celebrated for its temple of Jupiter, who was here represented by an image armed with thunder and lightning.

The principal places at present are the following: Famagusta, or Arsinoë, an elegant city, and good sea-port, pleasantly situated, and defended by two forts: it is enclosed on two sides by a ditch, and double wall, well fortified, and on the other two by the sea. The Turks are sensible of the importance of this place, and, contrary to their usual custom, keep the fortifications in excellent repair. The governor of this city is accountable only to the Ottoman Porte, not being subordinate to the bashaw of the islands. The Greeks and other Christians are only permitted to keep shops here

in the day-time, but are not allowed to lay in the city, which is, however, a bishop's see, subject to the metropolitan of Nicosia.

Though the lastmentioned is the most important place, yet Nicosia is deemed the metropolis of Cyprus. This city, which is delightfully situated in the center of the island, was formerly the seat of the Cyprian monarchs. It was then nine miles in circuit, but is now dwindled to three. It is, however, still a beautiful town, of a circular form, surrounded with walls, defended by a deep ditch, and well fortified. It formerly contained 40,000 houses, and several noble palaces; but many of the first, and all the latter, are fallen to decay, or have been pulled down. The best churches, particularly St. Sophia, the Turks have converted into mosques. The Greeks, Latins, Arminians, Nestorians, Maronites, &c. have their churches and chapels allowed them. This city is the residence of the Turkish bashaw and the Greek archbishop, the suffragans of the latter being the bishops of Famagusta, Paphos, Larneza, and Cerenes.

Larneza is a good sea-port, in which the French and Venetians have a consul. The houses are, however, low and mean, and the inhabitants composed of Turks, Greeks, and some Europeans. The commodities are cotton, cotton yarn, wool, &c.

Cerenes, the ancient Ceraunia, is almost in ruins, though formerly a strong and populous place.

Limisso is now nothing but a mean village, though it remains a bishop's see; and the situation of the ancient city of Amatheus is not at present known.

Paphos, now called Baffa, is situated on the western coast of the island. St. Paul in this city converted its governor Sergius, and struck the necromancer Barjesus with blindness; Acts xiii. 6. Though much decayed from its former glory, it is still a bishop's see, and a good sea-port town. In ancient times it was much celebrated for its magnificent temple dedicated to Venus, from which the goddess of Love was called the Paphian Venus.

The condition of the votaries of this captivating goddess are thus finely described by Dryden.

In Venus's temple on the sides were seen
The broken slumbers of enamour'd men;
Looks that e'en spoke, and pity seem'd to call,
And issuing sighs that smok'd along the wall;
Complaints and hot desires, the lover's hell,
And scalding tears that wore a channel where they fell;

Expence and after-thought, and idle care,
And doubts of motly hue, and dark despair;
Suspitions, and fantastical surmise,
And jealousy suffus'd with jaundic'd eyes.

"We think it necessary to inform our readers, that the Islands of the Archipelago, or Great Sea, described in this Chapter, are only those situated in Asia; the remainder belong to those parts which are situated in Europe, and will therefore be properly described in their respective places, when we come to a description of that part of the globe. We make this distinction in order to preserve that order and uniformity which is consistent with our plan, and to render our work deserving the title of a Complete and Universal System of Geography."



VARIOUS ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF ASIA, IN THE GREAT PACIFIC OCEAN, &c.

Including several discovered by our Countrymen Captains Cook, Clerke, Gore, King, &c. some of which having been only seen, but not visited, can admit but of small Description.

KERGUELEN's LAND was discovered by Monsieur de Kerguelen, a French navigator, whose name it bears. It is situated in 48 deg. 41 min. south lat. and 76 deg. 50 min. east long. and was visited by *Captain Cook* in 1776. Having come to an anchor in the harbour, in order to procure water, and nearly completed their quantity, the commander allowed the ships crews (*Resolution* and *Discovery*) the 27th of December as a day of rest to celebrate Christmas; in consequence of which, many of them went on shore, and made excursions into the country, which they found desolate and barren in the extreme. In the evening one of them presented a quart bottle to *Captain Cook*, which he had found on the north side of the harbour, fastened with some wire to a projecting rock. This bottle contained a piece of parchment, with the following inscription:

*Ludovico XV. Galliarum
rege, et de Boynes
regi a Secretis ad res
maritimas annis 1772 et
1773.*

Captain Cook, as a memorial of the British vessels having been in this harbour. wrote on the other side of the parchment as follows:

*Naves Resolution
et Discovery
de Rege Magnæ Britannia,
Decembris 1776.*

He then put it again into the bottle, accompanied with a silver two-penny piece of 1772, covered the mouth of the bottle with a leaden cap, and placed it the next morning in a pile of stones, erected for that purpose on an eminence, near the place where it was first found. Here *Captain Cook* displayed the British flag, and named the place Christmas Harbour, it being on that festival the vessels arrived in it.

As to the island, he was unwilling to rob Monsieur de Kerguelen of the honour of its bearing his name; though, from its sterility, it might properly be called "The Island of Desolation."

Mr. Anderson, who, during the short time the ships lay in Christmas Harbour, lost no opportunity of searching the country in every direction, relates the following particulars.

No place (says he) hitherto discovered in either hemisphere affords so scanty a field for the naturalist as this sterile spot. Some verdure, indeed, appeared, when at a small distance from the shore, which might raise the expectation of meeting with a little herbage; but all this lively appearance was occasioned by one small plant, resembling saxifrage, which grew up the hills in large spreading tufts, on a kind of rotten turf, which, if dried, might serve for fuel, and was the only thing seen here that could possibly be applied to that purpose.

Another plant, which grew to near the height of two feet, was pretty plentifully scattered about the boggy declivities; it had the appearance of a small cabbage when it was shot into seeds. It had the watery acid taste of the antiscorbutic plants, though it materially differed from the whole tribe. When eaten raw, it was not unlike the New Zealand feurvy-grass, but when boiled, it acquired a rank flavour. At this time none of its seeds were ripe enough to be brought home, and introduced into our English kitchen-gardens.

Near the brooks and boggy places were found two other small plants, which were eaten as sallad; the one like garden cresses, and very hot, and the other very mild. The latter is a curiosity, having not only male and female, but also androgynous plants.

Some coarse grass grew pretty plentifully in a few small spots near the harbour, which was cut down for our cattle. In short, the whole catalogue of plants did not exceed eighteen, including a beautiful species of lichen, and several sorts of moss. Nor was there the appearance of a tree or shrub in the whole country.

Among the animals the most considerable were seals, which were distinguished by the name of sea-bears, being the sort that are called the ursine seal. They come on shore to repose and breed. At that time they were shedding their hair, and so remarkably tame, that there was no difficulty in killing them.

No other quadruped was seen; but a great number of oceanic birds, as ducks, shags, petrels, &c. The ducks were somewhat like a widgeon, both in size and figure. A considerable number of them were killed and eaten. They were excellent food, and had not the least fishy taste.

The Cape petrel, the small blue one, and the small black one, or Mother Carey's chicken, were not in plenty here; but another sort, which is the largest of the petrels, and called by the seamen Mother Carey's goose, is found in abundance. This petrel is as large as an albatross, and is carnivorous, feeding on the dead carcases of seals, birds, &c.

The greatest number of birds here were penguins, which consist of three sorts. The head of the largest is black, the upper part of the body of a leaden grey, the under part white, and the feet black: two broad stripes of fine yellow descend from the head to the breast: the bill is of a reddish colour, and longer than in the other sorts. The second sort is about half the size of the former: it is of a blackish grey on the upper part of the body, and has a white spot on the upper part of the head: the bill and feet are yellowish. In the third sort the upper part of the body and throat are black, the rest white, except the top of the head, which is ornamented with a fine yellow arch, which it can erect as two crests.

The shags here are of two sorts, viz. the lesser cormorant, or water-crow; and another with a blackish back and a white belly. The sea-swallow, the tern, the common sea-gull, and the Port Egmont hen, were also found here.

Large flocks of a singular kind of white bird flew about here, having the base of the bill covered with a horny crust. It had a black bill and white feet, was somewhat larger than a pigeon, and the flesh tasted like that of a duck.

The seine was once hauled, when was found a few fish about the size of a small haddock. The only shell fish seen here were a few limpets and mussels.

Many of the hills, notwithstanding they were of a moderate height, were at that time covered with snow, though answering to our June. It is reasonable to imagine that rain must be very frequent here, as well from the marks of large torrents having rushed down, as from the appearance of the country, which, even on the hills, was a continued bog or swamp.

The rocks consist principally of a dark blue and very hard stone, intermixed with particles of plumbago, or quartz. Some considerable rocks were also formed here of a brownish brittle stone.

PATERNOSTER ISLANDS, so called from the great number of rocks, which sailors have likened to the beads with which the Roman Catholics tell their paternosters. They abound in corn and fruits, and are rather populous, but contain nothing remarkable.

GEORGIA, a cluster of barren islands, about 54 deg. 30 min. south latitude, and 36 deg. 30 min. west long. One of them is between 50 and 60 leagues in length, and also contain nothing worth description.

ISLAND OF HANDSOME PEOPLE lies in 10 deg. south lat. and 185 deg. east longitude. It is 18 miles in circumference, and was discovered by De Quiros in 1696. Notwithstanding the excessive heat of the climate, the natives are remarkably fair and handsome, from whence the island had its name. They are covered only from the waist downwards, with mats of palm, and wear a mantle of the same on their shoulders. Their houses, which are thatched, stand in clusters; and their canoes are trees hollowed out.

HORN OF HOORN ISLAND is situated in 14 deg. 56 min. south lat. and 179 deg. east long. and was discovered in 1616, by Shouten.

The male natives of this island are tall, well made, and robust. They are nimble runners, expert swimmers, and good divers. Their complexion is a yellowish brown; and they take great pleasure in dressing their hair, which is black. Some tie it, others frize it. Some let it grow down the waist, and tie it in five or six tails; and others dress it right an end, standing up like hog's bristles, ten or eleven inches long: but they do not suffer the beard to grow. The women are short of stature, deformed both in features and body, and rather indecent in their behaviour. Both sexes go naked, except a piece of covering between their legs; and the women rub their heads and cheeks with something red.

Their land produces spontaneously a great variety of fruits, such as cocoas, bananas, yams, &c. for they are ignorant of cultivation. At low water the women catch fish, which is eaten raw. They have also some hogs, which they cook wretchedly.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLANDS, lying in 51 deg. south latitude, were discovered by two French navigators, on their passage from the Cape of Good Hope to the Philippine Islands. They are two in number, and, as they had no names in the French Chart of the Southern Hemisphere, *Captain Cook*, when he saw them in 1776, called them Prince Edward's Islands. That which lay most to the south appeared to be about fifteen leagues in circuit, and the most northerly about nine leagues. There are four others contiguous, called Marion and Crozet's Islands, from the names of the discoverers.

ADVENTURE ISLAND, so called from the ship Adventure, in which captain Furneaux sailed to the South Seas. It lies in latitude 43 deg. 21 min. south, and longitude 147 deg. 29 min. west. The natives are described as mild and chearful, with little of that wild appearance which savages in general have, but at the same time totally devoid of personal activity or genius.

RESOLUTION, a small island, so called by *Captain Cook*, from his own ship the Resolution. It lies in lat. 17 deg. 24 min. south, and long. 141 deg. 45 min. west.

PALM ISLAND is situated on the coast of New South Wales, as are also the Islands SOLITARY, FURNEAUX, MARIAS, CUMBERLAND, NORTHUMBERLAND and DIRECTION, so called by *Captain Cook*, who first explored this coast, and named them as above. They contain nothing worthy description.

PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLANDS lie at the northern extremity of New Holland. They were observed at a distance to abound with trees and grass, and were

known to be inhabited from the smoke that was seen ascending in many places.

BAY OF ISLANDS, a group of small islands situated on the coast of New Zealand: among which are included those called GANNET, BANKS'S, SOLANDER'S, TRAP'S, &c.

POTOE is an island situated about two leagues to the westward of the Grand or principal of the Ladrões. It is rocky and of small extent.

SENTRY-BOX ISLAND is situated about a league and an half from the south point of Christmas Harbour in Kerguelen's Land, and so called from its resembling a sentry-box.

SOLOR lies to the south of the Island of Celebes, in lat. 9 deg. south, and long. 123 deg. 55 min. east. It contains nothing remarkable.

NICOBAR ISLANDS lie at the entrance of the Gulph of Bengal. The natives are tall and well proportioned, with long faces, black eyes, black lank hair, and copper-coloured skins. They are said to be an harmless, good sort of people, and go quite naked, except a covering about the waist. They have neither temples nor idols, nor does there seem to be any great superiority among them. They are excellent swimmers, and sometimes will overtake small vessels under sail. They live in little huts having no towns, and the country is almost covered with wood. They have no corn, but a fruit which serves them instead of bread, and they catch plenty of fish. The largest of these islands, which gives name to the rest, is about 40 miles in length and 15 in breadth.

PORTLAND ISLAND lies to the southward of the Society Isles, and was so called by *Captain Cook*, who discovered it on his first voyage, from its resemblance to that of the same name in the British Channel. Some parts of this island appeared to be cultivated, and pumice stones in great quantities lying along the shore within the bay indicated that there was a volcano in the island. High palings upon the ridges of hills were also visible in two places, which were judged to be designed for religious purposes.

BARE ISLAND, so called by *Captain Cook*, as it appeared to be barren, and inhabited only by fishermen. It lies in lat. 39 deg. 45 min. south.

EAST ISLAND lies in lat. 37 deg. 42 min. south. It appeared to *Captain Cook*, who discovered it also on his first voyage, small and barren.

WHITE ISLAND is contiguous to the former.

MAYOR AND COURT OF ALDERMEN, a cluster of small islands lying in lat. 37 deg. 59 min. south, about twelve miles from the main. They are mostly barren, but very high.

MERCURY ISLANDS, a cluster of different sizes. The Bay is called also Mercury Bay, and lies in lat. 36 deg. 47 min. south, long. 184 deg. 4 min. west, and has a small entrance at its mouth.

HEN AND CHICKEN, small islands situated in lat. 35 deg. 46 min. south.

POOR KNIGHTS, a cluster of islands lying in lat. 36 deg. 36 min. south. On these islands were seen a few towns which appeared fortified, and the land round them seemed well inhabited.

CAVALLES ISLANDS, so called by *Captain Cook*, from the name of some fish the crew purchased of the Indians.

dians. These people were very insolent, using many frantic gestures, and throwing stones at the crew. Some small shot were fired, and one of them being hit, they all made a precipitate retreat.

THREE KINGS: The chief of these islands lies in lat. 34 deg. 12 min. south, and long. 187 deg. 48 min. west. Birds were shot upon it which nearly resembled geese, and were very good eating.

HAMOTE, a little island in lat. 41 deg. south, near Queen Charlotte's Sound.

ENTRY ISLE, an high island situated about nine or ten leagues from Cape Keamaroo, which lies in 41 deg. 44 min. south lat. and 113 deg. 30 min. west longitude.

ISLAND OF LOOKERS-ON, situated contiguous to the former, and so called by *Captain Cook*, because the natives could not be prevailed on to approach the ship.

MAGNETICAL ISLAND, so called by *Captain Cook* because the compass did not travel well when the ship was near it. It is said to be high, rugged, rocky and barren, yet not without inhabitants, for smoke was seen in several parts about it.

THE SISTERS. These are two islands of very small extent, plentifully stocked with wood, situate in the lat. of 5 deg. south, and long. 106 deg. 12 min. east, near south and north from each other, and encompassed by a reef of coral rocks, the whole circuit of which is four or five miles.

CARACATOA is the southernmost of a cluster of islands lying in the entrance of the Straits of Sunda. Its southern extremity is situated in the lat. of 6 deg. 9 min. south, and long. 105 deg. 15 min. east. Its whole circumference does not exceed nine miles. The island consists of elevated land, gradually rising from the sea, and is entirely covered with trees, except a few spots cleared by the natives for the purpose of forming rice fields. The population of the island is inconsiderable. The coral reefs afford turtles in abundance, but other refreshments are very scarce.

PULO-BALLY is an island about two miles round, and lies in the lat. of 00 deg. 30 min. south. There is good anchorage to the eastward of it in 12 and 13 fathom water, muddy ground. It has abundance of wood and fresh water.

SCHOUTEN ISLANDS, so called from Schouren, a Dutch navigator, who discovered them in 1616, lie in lat. 00 deg. 46 min. south.

SELANG lies in lat. 00 deg. 50 min. south. It is not flat, or very high. It forms two harbours with the main land, an outer and an inner harbour. There is no danger in running into either, but what is plainly seen. The inner harbour is about two miles broad, and three long, and the general depth ten fathom.

PULO-GAG lies in 00 deg. 18 min. south lat. and is an island of middling height. When plainly seen it appears like the land of Europe, not being woody, as the islands in these parts generally are. The valley is said to have a rich soil, and many sago trees upon it. It is not inhabited, though travellers by water often put into the bay to pass the night, and sometimes stay there fishing several days.

PRINCES ISLAND lies in the western mouth of the Straits of Sunda. It abounds with vegetables of various kinds, deer, turtle, &c. Our India ships used to touch here to take in water, but they have omitted this practice some years since; though *Captain Cook* says the water is exceeding good, if filled towards the head of the brook.

TOMOOUY is an island situated in 00 deg. 15 min. south lat. and, in shape, resembles a horse-shoe. On the island rises a hill, which takes up about three fourths of its compass, and on the side of this hill are plantations of tropical fruits and roots.

WAGLOL is a small flat island. Here it may not be improper to observe, that at most of these islands lives one or more of certain chiefs called Synagees, who repair on board such vessels as visit them, in order to beg presents. The dress of one of them is thus described: one half of the coat and long drawers was clouded red, white, and yellow; the other half blue, white, and green, clouded also; not unlike the whimsical dresses of masquerades. His turban, made of coarse white calico, was pinked.

The Mahometans upon these islands live mostly upon fish and sago bread. Sometimes they mix a cocoa-nut rasped down with the sago flower, and putting this into a thin Chinese iron pan, they keep stirring the mixture on the fire, and eat it warm. They also eat the ordinary white swallo, a root which is found every where in the sand at low water. They eat it raw, cut up small, and mixed with salt and lime juice.

They have in this country the following peculiar method of drawing blood. They put the rough side of a certain leaf, about as large as a man's hand, on that part where they want to extract blood, then with the tongue they lick the upper side of the leaf, and the under side is presently all over bloody.

In these parts grows a particular kind of green fruit, which the natives eat. It is as long as the hollow part of a quill, and almost as small. They call it ciry. This fruit is very good in a curry or stew, leaving a fine aromatic flavour.

The two clusters of islands Bo and Poro, lie nearly in the same parallel of latitude, 1 deg. 17 min. south. They are about five leagues asunder. Bo consists of six or seven islands.

These islands, which have a good many inhabitants, can supply plenty of cocoa-nuts, salt, and dried fish. To the westward of the cluster, but contiguous to it, are about nine or ten small low islands. To the eastward, on two islands, are two little hills, which, at a distance, look like two tea-cups, bottom up. These islands are said to be well inhabited, and here resides a rajah.

It is affirmed by an authentic writer, with respect to the inhabitants of these parts, that not only women often kill or burn themselves with their deceased husbands, but men also, in honour of their deceased masters. Those who determine on this are not limited to time; they name, perhaps, a distant day, and in the mean while their intention being made known, there is no honour the natives can think of, but they pay to this devotee. He is caressed wherever he goes. On the fatal day, by the side of a great fire, a loose stage of boards is erected; on this he dances, working himself up to a fit. He then slips to the end of a plank, which tilting, he falls headlong into the flames.

The north coast of the Island of Waygiow, which lies about half a degree to the northward of the equator, is near 15 leagues in length. The hill on Gibby Mounpine, (a particular quarter of Waygiow,) which, from its shape, is called the Cock's Comb, may be seen about 20 leagues off. Some white spots appear on it. Opposite to the entrance of the harbour are two little islands, one shaped like a sugar loaf, the other with a hillock on it. At the bottom of this hillock is a piece of fresh water, where there is anchorage in twelve fathoms sand. The two islands are joined by a reef of coral rocks, dry at low water. There are said to be 100,000 inhabitants upon the island, who wage perpetual war with one another. Ossak harbour lies in 00 deg. 10 min. north latitude. Near this island two fish were taken, the heads of which were remarkable for an horn that

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that projected from between their eyes. The horn was about four inches long, equal in length to the head. Altogether the head was like that of an unicorn. The natives called it Ecn Raw, that is the fish Raw. The skin was black, and the body might be twenty inches long. Its tail was armed with two strong scythes on each side, with their points forwards.

THE ISLAND of ABDON lies in 00 deg. 36 min. north latitude. It is about three miles round, and 200 feet high. KONIBAR may be about the same height and size: it is north of Abdon. The rest of the sixteen islands that form this cluster are flat and low, except Aiow Babar, which rises about 500 feet. On Konibar are said to be plantations of yams, potatoes, sugar canes, and other tropical productions.

The inhabitants of these islands have fish and turtle in such abundance (and especially cockles about the bigness of a man's head) that they neglect agriculture. When they want bread, they carry live turtle, and sausages made of their eggs, dried fish, to Waygiow, which they truck for fago, either baked or raw; nay, perhaps go to the woods and provide themselves, by cutting down the trees. On these excursions they often carry their wives and families.

SANGIR is an oblong island, extending from 3 deg. 30 min. to 4 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It is broadest towards the north, and tapers small towards the south. About the middle of the west coast of the island is the town, harbour, and bay of Taroon, opposite which, on the east coast, is also a town and harbour, called tabookang. It abounds in cocoa-nuts, as do many islands that lie near it. A fathom of small brass wire, such as is used at the end of a fishing-line, will purchase 100 cocoa nuts, an ordinary knife 300, and four knives a battel (60 lb.) of cocoa-nut oil.

TULOUR, or TANNA LABU, lies in 4 deg. 45 min. north latitude. It is situated about 70 miles east of the north part of Sangir. It is of middling height. The inhabitants live on the sea-coast, and have their plantations up the country.

SALIDABO ISLAND lies to the southward of Tulour, being divided only by a narrow strait, about a mile wide. It is not above eight or ten miles in circumference, is admirably cultivated, and contains several villages.

KABRUANG lies to the south-east of Salidabo, and is parted from it by a strait about four miles wide. This island is in high cultivation, and also contains several villages.

TAGULANDA contains about 2000 inhabitants, who, being Pagans, eat pork. On the island are many goats, some bullocks, and cocoa-nuts in abundance. The Dutch keep here a corporal and two soldiers, also a schoolmaster for teaching the children the principles of Christianity. Three prongs, a kind of large chopping-knives, will purchase a bullock, and one a thousand cocoa-nuts.

BANKA ISLAND is near Tagulanda, and remarkable for a high hill. It has a harbour on its south end, is pretty well inhabited, and abounds in cocoa-nuts, limes, nankas or jacks, fish, turtle, and rats.

TELLUSYANG ISLAND, that is, Harbour of Syang, is contiguous to Banka Island. This harbour, which is said to be a good one, is on the south end of the island, which has a hill upon it. There are some wild cattle, but no other inhabitants. These islands are much frequented by cruisers, not only from Mindanao, but from Sooloo.

Sooloo ISLAND is situated in 6 deg. north latitude,
No. 29.

and 119 deg. east longitude. It is 30 miles long, 12 broad, and contains a great number of inhabitants. It is governed by a king of its own. It is well cultivated, and affords a fine prospect from the sea. Indeed, the island being rather small for its number of inhabitants, they study agriculture more than those on the adjacent ones, where land is not deemed so valuable. As they cannot depend on a crop of rice, not being sure of rain in due season, they cultivate many roots; the Spanish, or sweet potatoe; the clody, or St. Hillano yam; the China yam, both red and white; sending to Mindanao for what rice they consume. They have great variety of fine tropical fruits. Their oranges are full as good as those of China. They have also a variety of the fruit called jack, or naka; a kind of large custard apple, named madang; mangos; and a fruit they call bolona, like a large plumb or mango, white-inside. They enjoy, in great abundance, a very innocent and delicious fruit, called lancey. The trees in the woods are loaded with this fruit, which is large, and ripens well. The Sooloos having great connexion with China, and many Chinese being settled among them, they have learned the art of engrafting and improving their fruits. Here is no spice tree but the cinnamon.

This island enjoys a perpetual summer. Up the country it is always cool, especially under the shade of the oak trees, which are very numerous. This tree has a broad leaf, which, when bruised between the fingers, stains the hand red. The industrious Chinese gather these leaves, and the leaves of the fruit-tree called madang, to line the baskets of cane or bamboo, in which they pack up the Sooloo root, which they export in great quantities from this place.

The Sooloos are not only neat in their cloaths, but dress gaily. The men go generally in white waistcoats, buttoned down to the wrist, with white breeches, sometimes strait, sometimes wide.

The women are handsome in general, and, by comparison, fair. Those of rank wear waistcoats of fine muslin, close fitted to their bodies; their necks, to the upper parts of the two breasts, being bare. From the waist downwards, they wear a loose robe, girt with an embroidered zone or belt about the middle, with a large clasp of gold, and a precious stone. This being loose, like a petticoat, comes over the drawers, and reaches to the middle of the leg, the drawers, which are of fine muslin, reaching to the ankle.

The sultanship in Sooloo is hereditary, but the government mixed. About fifteen datoots, who may be called the nobility, make the greater part of the legislature. The title is hereditary to the eldest son, and they sit in council with the sultan. The sultan has two votes in this assembly, and each datoo has one.

The common people of Sooloo, called tellimanhood, do not enjoy much real freedom. It is said that their haughty lords, when visiting their estates, will sometimes, with impunity, demand and carry off young women, whom they happen to fancy, to swell the number of their fiddles (concubines) at Sooloo. Indeed, the lower class groan under various kinds of tyranny.

The nobles here are extremely dissolute. Those who have more than one wife, which is not very common, keep each in a separate house: but their dissoluteness consists in their numerous concubines and intrigues; for here women have as much liberty in going abroad as in Europe.

The Sooloos have a very good breed of horses, and their women are very expert in riding. Their manner is to ride backwards and forwards the length of a long broad street upon sandy ground, forcing their horses on a quick trot, and checking them when they attempt to gallop. The horses accustomed to this trot very fast. Riding is an exercise women of fashion use all over the island.

Here are wild elephants, the offspring (as is supposed with good foundation) of those sent in former days from the continent of India as presents to the kings of Sooloo. Those animals avoid meeting with horned cattle,

cattle, though they are not shy of horses. Sooloo has spotted deer, and abundance of goats and black cattle, but the people seldom milk their cows. They have very few sheep; but the wild hogs are numerous, and do much mischief by breaking down fences. After harvest the inhabitants hunt the elephants and wild hogs, endeavouring to destroy them.

Of birds there are here abundance of diminutive catatoes and small green parrots.

At Sooloo and the islands adjacent the pearl fishery has been famous for many ages. In the sea between Mindano and Sooloo is a pearl fishery not inferior to any in the Indies either in point of colour or size. This, indeed, is the source of their wealth.

The Sooloos have in their families many slaves whom they purchase from the different cruisers. Sometimes they purchase whole cargoes, which they carry to Borneo, where, if the females are handsome, they are bought up for the Batavia market. The masters sometimes use their slaves cruelly, assuming the power of life and death over them. Many are put to death for trifling offences, and their bodies left above ground. An attempt of elopement is here seldom pardoned.

The state of Sooloo is important: the inhabitants are very powerful, not only most of the adjacent islands being under them, but great part of Borneo. They have the character of being treacherous, and of endeavouring always to supply by fraud what they cannot effect by force.

PANGATARRAN, lying a little to the southward of the former, is a long flat island, has no fresh water, nor is any good anchoring near, except in some few places. It abounds in cocoa nuts and a fruit called Guava.

RAMANCOR lies in lat. 9 deg. 25 min. north, and long. 579 deg. 45 min. east. It is about 23 miles in circumference, very sandy, and has only a few villages in it and a temple.

PULO-SAPATA is situated in lat. 10 deg. 4 min. north, and long. 109 deg. 10 min. east. It is elevated, small and unfertile.

PRATA lies in lat. 20 deg. north. Near the southern extremity of the island some of the crew of the Resolution imagined they saw from the mast-head several openings in the reef, which seemed to promise secure anchorage. The extent of the Prata shoal is considerable, being about six leagues from north to south.

MYO lies in lat. 1 deg. 23 min. north. TYFORY is a flat island not so large as Myo, and lies about W. by S. from it, distant five or six miles. It was formerly inhabited when the Spaniards had the Moluccas; but

the Dutch will not now permit any one to live there lest it should be convenient for the smuggling of spices.

KARAKITA, PALLA, SIAO, and GRAVE are the principal of a cluster of islands lying between the lat. of 3 and 4 deg. north. At Siao the Dutch entertain a schoolmaster, a corporal and a few soldiers.

The RABBIT is a small rocky island with a few coconut trees upon it, and many rocks like sugar loaves round it. It lies to the eastward of Karakita about four miles, and derived its name from its shape.

SULPHUR ISLAND, discovered by *Captain Gore*, is in 24 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and 140 deg. 56 min. east longitude. Its length is about five miles. The south point is an elevated barren hill, rather flat at the summit, and, when seen from the west south-west, exhibits evident tokens of a volcanic eruption. The sand, earth, or rock, (for it was difficult to distinguish of which of these substances its surface was composed,) displayed various colours; and it was imagined that a considerable part was sulphur, not only from its appearance to the eye, but from the strong sulphureous smell perceived in approaching the points. As the Resolution passed nearer the land than the Discovery, several of the officers of that ship thought they discerned steams proceeding from the top of the hill: these circumstances induced Captain Gore to bestow on this discovery the appellation of Sulphur Island.

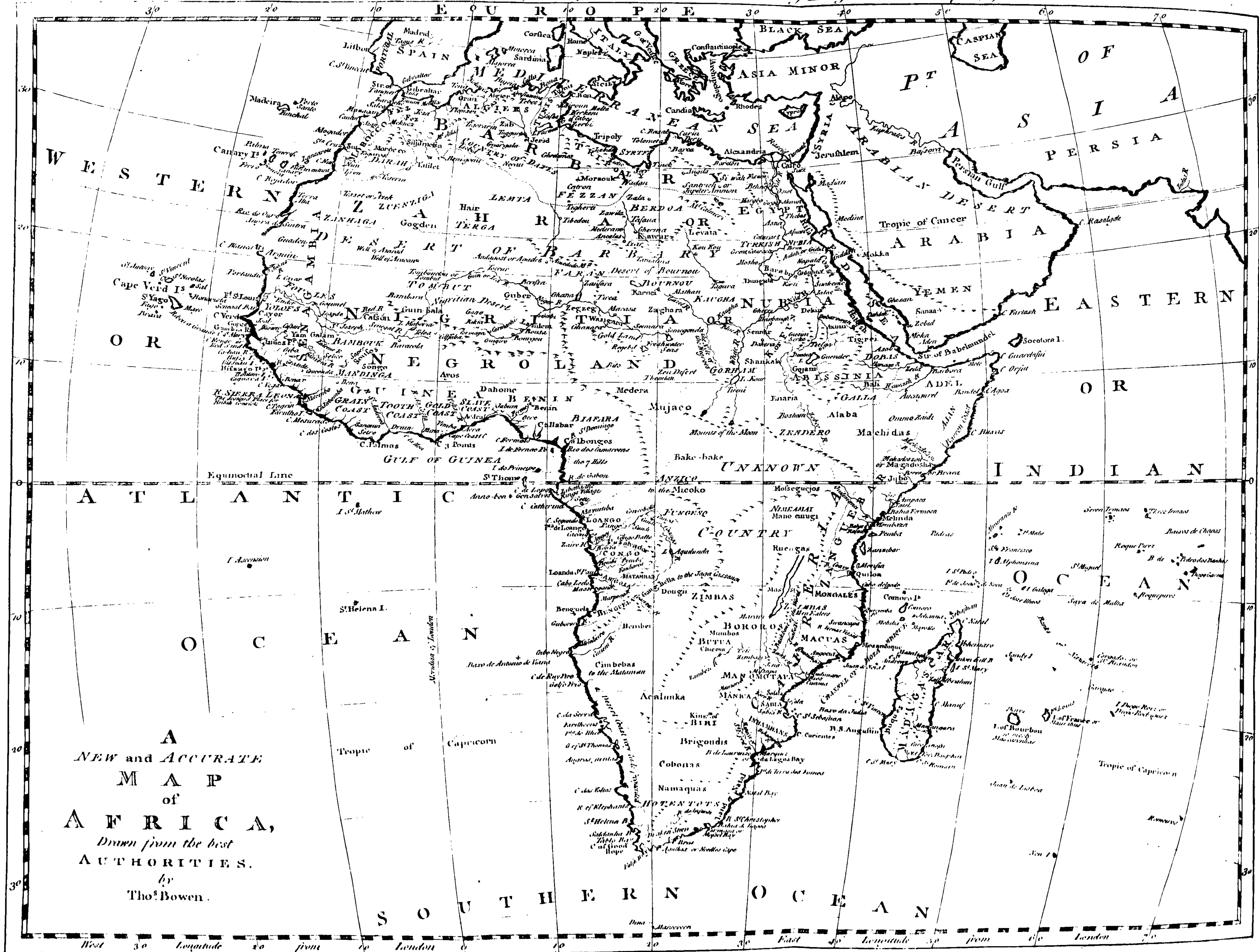
BURNEY'S ISLAND is situated on the north-east coast of Asia, in 67 deg. 45 min. north latitude. The inland country about this part abounds with hills, some of which are of considerable elevation. *Captain Cook* observes, that the land in general was covered with snow, except a few spots on the coast.

ST. LAWRENCE'S ISLAND, according to the most accurate observations, lies in 63 deg. 47 min. north lat. and 188 deg. 15 min. east longitude. The northern part of it may be discerned at the distance of ten or twelve leagues. It is about three leagues in circumference.

BHERING'S ISLAND, so called from the navigator who discovered it, lies in 58 degrees north latitude. KARAKINSKOI, MAIDENOI, ATAKA, and SHAIMBA, are all islands that lie contiguous, said to be little cultivated, and very thinly, if at all, inhabited.

GORE ISLAND, so named by *Captain Cook*, who discovered it in his last voyage, lies in about 64 deg. north lat. and 191 deg. east longitude. It is about 30 miles in extent, and appeared to our navigators to be barren, and destitute of inhabitants.





A NEW, ROYAL, AUTHENTIC

And COMPLETE SYSTEM of
UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

B O O K III.

A F R I C A,

Including the New Discoveries on the Continent and Islands off the Coast.

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

AFRICA is of vast extent, encompassed all round by the sea, except at the Isthmus, or narrow neck of land, at Suez, which separates the Mediterranean from the Red Sea, whilst it joins the Continent of Asia to that of Africa. Its utmost length, from N. to S. on both sides of the Equator, that is, from Cape Bona, in the Mediterranean, northward, to the Cape of Good Hope, southward, is 4300 miles. Its breadth, from Cape Verd, to Cape Guarda Fui, near the Straits of Babel Mandel, is 3500 miles. It is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea, by which it is divided from Europe; on the S. by the Pacific Ocean; on the E. by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean; and on the W. by the Great Atlantic, which separates it from America.

As the equinoctial passes through the middle of Africa, and the greater part of it lies between the tropics, the heat, in the inland parts especially, is almost insupportable to Europeans. Though, from situation, the climate can have but little variation, most parts of this region are inhabited. The natives of these sultry climes are unacquainted with snow and ice, nor ever dream of the possibility of fluids being consolidated by the cold. The soil, through extreme heat, as well as drought, from want of rain, is, in general, sterile; but the coasts and banks of rivers, particularly those of the Nile, are fertilized by inundations.

The principal rivers of Africa are the Nile and the Niger. The Niger falls into the Atlantic, or Western Ocean, at Senegal, after a winding course of 2800 miles: but the Nile has, from time immemorial, obtained the first rank, upon many valuable accounts. This celebrated river divides Egypt into two parts, and, after a vast course, from its source in Abyssinia, discharges itself into the Mediterranean. There are also the rivers Gambia and Senegal, which are branches of the Nile, and several others of less note.

The most considerable mountains in Africa are the following. The Greater and Lesser Atlas. The former stretches to the Atlantic Ocean westward, to which it gives its name. The latter, called also Lant, and by the inhabitants Errif, is a ridge extending along the Mediterranean, from the Straits of Gibraltar to the city of Bona on the same coast. The mountains of the Sun and Moon, called by the Spaniards Montes Claros, are famous for their prodigious height. The Sierra Leona, or Mountains of Lions, so called from the numbers of those fierce creatures which range at large on them, divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. The Peak or Pike of Teneriffe, which is said to be still higher than any of the rest, in the form of a sugar-loaf, is situated on an island of the same name near the coast.

Though the situation of Africa, as a peninsula, as it were, in the center of the globe, is extremely favourable for commerce; though the country abounds with gold, as appears from the concurrent testimonies of the English, Dutch, and French, who have settlements on the coasts, the natives derive little benefit from navigation. In short, Africa, stored with treasure, and capable, under improvement, of producing so many things, delightful as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be too much neglected, not only by the natives, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it.

Africa was once, indeed, famous for the liberal arts, for opulence and commerce. It has given birth to eminent divines, heroes, and poets: but the natives are now degenerated to such a degree, as to become odious to a proverb. Its chief commerce is that of all others the most disgraceful to human nature, namely, the sale of our fellow creatures, a practice attended with such circumstances of horror and barbarity, as cannot but thrill the breast that is not steeled against the nicer feelings. Upon the whole, the nature of the clime, the brutality of the natives, and the ferocity of the beasts, display the powerful effects of excessive heat both on the vegetable and animal creation; while the successive depredations of different nations have reduced it to the lowest ebb of ignorance and barbarity.

A GENERAL

A GENERAL TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA, &c.

Nations.				Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Dist. & Bear. from London.			
Included under the general Names of	Barbary	Morocco	-	500	480	Morocco	-	1080	S.	
		Algiers	-	480	100	Algiers	-	920	S.	
		Tunis	-	220	170	Tunis	-	990	S. E.	
		Tripoli	-	700	240	Tripoli	-	1260	S. E.	
		Barca	-	400	300	Tolemata	-	1400	S. E.	
		Biledulgerid	-	2500	350	Dara	-	1565	}	
	the Desert	Zaara	-	2400	660	Tigessa	-	1840		S.
		Tombut	-	Limits uncertain	-	Tombuto	-	-		
	Negroland	Sierra Leona	-	2200	840	Mundingo	-	2500	S.	
		Mundingo	-							
		Pholey and Jaloffs	Countries							
		Slave Coast	-			-	Great Popo	-	}	S.
	Gold Coast	-	-	Acra, Crevecoeur, Fort James	-					
	Tooth Coast	-	-	Laho	-					
	Grain Coast	-	-	No Towns	-					
	Whidah	-	-	Xavier	-					
	Ardrah	-	1800	360	Affem	-	1700			
	Fetu	-	-	-	Cape Coast Castle	-				
	Commendo	-	-	-	Little Commendo	-				
	Jaby	-	-	-	No Town	-				
	Anta	-	-	-	Bourtray	-				
	Axim	-	-	-	Achombone	-				
	Congo	Benin	-	Limits uncertain	-	Benin	-	2800	S.	
		Benguela	-	430	180	Benguela	-	3900	S.	
		Angola	-	360	250	Loando	-	3750	S.	
		Congo Proper	-	540	420	Saint Salvador	-	3480	S.	
	Mono-	Loango	-	410	300	Loango	-	3300	S.	
		Monomotapa	-	960	660	Monomotapa	-	4500	S.	
Zan-	Monomugi	-	900	660	Chicova	-	4260	S.		
	Caffraria	-	780	660	Cape Town	-	5200	S.		
	Melinda	-	1400	350	Melinda or Mosambique	-	4440	S. E.		
	Mosambique	-								
Sofala	-									
Upper Ethiopia	Abex	-	540	130	Doncala	-	3580	S. E.		
	Anian	-	900	800	Gondar	-	2800	S. E.		
	Magadoxa	-								
	Brana	-								
	Abyssinia	-								
	Nubia	-	940	600	Nubia	-	2418	S. E.		
	Egypt	-	600	250	Grand Cairo	-	1920	S. E.		

I S L A N D S.

Names.	Where situated.	Chief Towns.	Trade with or belong to
Madenas	Atlantic Ocean.	Santa Cruz and Funchal	Portuguese
Canaries		Palma, St. Christopher	Spaniards
Cape de Verd		St. Domingo	Portuguese
Goree		Fort St. Michael	French
Bissao		} Have no Towns, the Natives living in scattered Huts	} All Nations
Bissagoes			
Saint Helena		St. Helena	English
Ascension		}	} Uninhabited
Saint Matthew			
Annabon		} St. Thomas and Anaboa	} Portuguese
Saint Thome			
Prince's Isle	Indian Ocean.		
Fernando Po			
Bourbon		Bourbon	French
Mauritius		Mauritius	French
Madagascar		St. Austlin	All Nations
Comora Isles		Joanna	All Nations
Zocrata		Calania	
Babel-mandel		Babel-mandel	

Oceans, Seas, &c.	Rivers.	Mountains.	Religions.	Languages.	Capes and Straits.
Atlantic } Ocean	Niger	Atlas	Pagan	Coptic	Cape de Verd
Pacific } Ocean	Nile	Moon } Mountains	Mahometan	Arabic	Cape of Good Hope
Indian } Sea	Gambia	Lion	Christian	Greek	Strait of Babel-mandel
Mediterranean } Sea	Senegal	Teneriff		African or Morisco	
Red }				French	
				Lingua Franca	

C H A P. I.

CAFFRERIA, or the Country of the Hottentots.

SECTION I.

Name, Boundaries, Extent, Division.

THERE are many places in the rude and uncivilized parts of the world, which seem, from the nature of their situation, admirably adapted for the purposes both of navigation and commerce; but which have been neglected through the insuperable indolence of the natives. No instance affords a greater proof of the truth of this remark than the country now under consideration, which, (according to the accounts of Capt. Cook and other late navigators) from its contiguity to the sea, and that profusion of spontaneous productions of nature in the vegetable system, apparent both on its plains and vallies, evidently wants nothing but the exertion of human industry in the grand points of navigation and cultivation to render it both advantageous and comfortable to its inhabitants.

Authors are divided with respect to the origin of the name of this country: some suppose it to be derived from Caffres, the appellation given to some of its inhabitants, while others maintain that it is a stigma affixed on them by the Arabs in common with all who do not profess the Mahometan religion, assigning as a reason, that Caffreria is derived from Cafir, an Arabic word, signifying an Infidel.

Caffreria is bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyssinia, on the east by the Ocean, on the south by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the west by a part of Guinea. It is computed at about 708 miles in length and 660 in breadth.

This region may be divided into two parts; the northern including Caffreria Proper, and the southern, comprehending the Country of the Hottentots. Caffreria Proper being little known by Europeans, we shall begin with the Country of the Hottentots, after having premised some particulars relative to the Cape of Good Hope.

SECTION II.

Description of the Cape of Good Hope. Situation. Discovery. Foundation of the Dutch Settlement. Climate. Soil. Productions. Mountains. Curiosities described by our countryman Captain Cook. Account of Cape Town.

THE Cape of Good Hope, which is the southern extremity of Africa, lies in 34 deg. 29 min. south lat. and 81 deg. 23 min. east long. It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1493, but they never made any settlement. The Dutch first visited it in 1600, and for many years afterwards touched at it in their voyages to and from the East Indies for refreshments. The idea of forming a settlement there was first suggested in 1650 to the Dutch East India Company by M. Van Riebeck, a surgeon of one of their ships, who pointed out the advantages that might accrue from such an undertaking. The scheme meeting the approbation of the directors, the proposer was pitched upon as the properest person to carry it into execution. Four ships were fitted out for the Cape, having on board artificers, materials, implements and stores necessary for the occasion. M. Van Riebeck, vested with his credentials, sailed accordingly, and on his arrival at the Cape so effectually conciliated the natives by the distribution of the commodities he took, such as brass, toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. that a treaty was concluded, by

No. 29.

which it was stipulated, that in consideration of certain articles to the amount of 50,000 gilders, being delivered up to the natives, the Dutch should have full liberty to settle there.

A fort was then built, together with dwelling-houses, warehouses, an hospital for the reception of the sick, and proper fortifications, and the Dutch trade established on a good and solid foundation, with many considerable privileges of great advantage to their commerce in the Indies. In process of time the trade as well as number of settlers was so greatly increased, that it was judged expedient to augment the garrison and enlarge the store-houses; and in order to be provided against attempts from any of the European powers who began to envy the advantage the Dutch received from their settlement, a fort was built in a better situation than the first, which at different times was so considerably augmented, that at length it became a strong and elegant building, provided with every kind of accommodation. The number of settlers afterwards increasing to a considerable degree, they were obliged to extend themselves in colonies along the coast, and were divided into four principal ones, viz. Cape, Hellenbogensh, Drakenstein and Waveren. So that the province is of great extent, and the government of it a very considerable post.

The climate would be intolerable, if the heat was not mitigated by the winds, which blow from the southern ocean. Violent storms frequently arise, which, though they render the coast very dangerous, are absolutely necessary to the health of the inhabitants.

Captain Cook says, the land over the Cape of Good Hope is mountainous and barren: beyond these mountains the country is covered with a light sand, which will not admit of cultivation. There are, indeed, a few cultivated spots, but they bear no proportion to the others. Provisions are brought to the Cape from a distance some hundred miles up the country.

The same celebrated navigator likewise affirms, that notwithstanding the natural sterility of the climate, the industry of Europeans produces all the necessaries and most of the luxuries of life. The beef and mutton are excellent, though the oxen and sheep are natives of the country. The cattle are lighter than ours, most neatly made, and have much wider horns. The sheep are clothed with a substance between wool and hair, and have tails of an enormous size, some weighing upwards of twelve pounds. Good butter is made from the milk of cows, but the cheese is very inferior to ours. Here are hogs and a variety of poultry; also goats, but these are never eaten. The hares are exactly like those in Europe. There are quails of two sorts and bustards, all well flavoured but not juicy. The fields produce European wheat and barley; the gardens European vegetables and fruits of all kinds; besides plantains, guavas, jamba and other Indian fruits, but these are not in perfection. The vineyards also produce wines of various sorts, but not equal to those of Europe, except the constantia, which is made genuine only at one vineyard, about ten miles distant from Cape Town. There is another vineyard near it, where wine is made and called by the same name, but it is greatly inferior. Provisions in general are sold very cheap to the Dutch, who make all other Europeans that touch there pay dear for them.

When we speak of agriculture, it is to be confined to Europeans, for such is the indolence of the Hottentots, that they detest cultivation and every kind of labour.

While Captain Cook lay here, a farmer came to the

Cape, bringing his young children with him from a distance some hundred miles up the country, and which took him fifteen days journey. On being asked why he had not left his children with some neighbour, he said there was no inhabitant within five days journey of his farm. There are no trees that are even two yards in height, except in some plantations in the vicinity of Cape Town.

The animals found at the Cape are very numerous, as the elephant, rhinoceros, lion, tyger, leopard, buffalo, elk, hart, Cape sheep, wild ass, zebra, wild goat, wolf tyger, civit cat, &c.

There is great variety of birds and fowls, as wild geese, gulls, penguins, ostriches, peacocks, pheasants, snipes, ravens, owls, &c. But the most singular is a particular kind of eagle called dung-birds. They will attack an horse or cow in great flights, and making a hole in the belly of the beast with their beaks and talons, scoop out the inside, leaving only the bones and hide. The seas adjoining to the Cape abound with various kinds of fish.

As a very singular curiosity we cannot omit to insert the description of an extraordinary species of cuckow, communicated in a letter from a member of the Royal Academy in Stockholm, to a fellow of the Royal Society in London. "The Dutch settlers (says he) at the place where these birds are found have given them the name of Konig-wizer, or Honey-guide, from its discovering wild honey to travellers. It has nothing remarkable either in colour or size, but the instinct which prompts it to seek its food is truly admirable. Not only the Dutch and Hottentots, but likewise a species of quadruped, which the Dutch name a Ratel, (probably a new species of badger) are frequently conducted to wild bee hives by this bird, which, as it were, pilots them to the very spot. The honey being its favourite food, its own interest prompts it to be instrumental in robbing the hive, as some scraps are commonly left for its support. The morning and evening are its times of feeding, when it is heard calling, in a shrill tone Cherr Cherr, to which the honey-hunters carefully attend as the summons to the chase. From time to time they answer with a soft whistle, which the bird hearing always continues its note. As soon as they are in sight of each other, the bird gradually flutters towards the place where the hive is situated, continually repeating its former call of Cherr Cherr. At last, the bird is observed to hover for a short time over a certain spot, and then silently retiring to an adjoining bush, or other resting place, the hunters are sure of finding the bees nest in that very spot. While the hunters are busy in taking the honey the bird is seen looking on attentively to what is going forward, and waiting for its share of the spoil. The bee-hunters never fail to leave a small portion for their conductor, but commonly take care not to leave as much as would satisfy its hunger. The bird's appetite being only whetted by this parsimony, it is obliged to make another discovery in hopes of a better reward. It is further to be observed, that the nearer the bird approaches the hidden hive, the more frequently it repeats its call, and seems more impatient."

The reptiles of this country are various, and among them they have the six following of the serpent kind, viz. the tree serpent, the ash-coloured asp, the shoot serpent, the blind slow worm, the thirst serpent, and the hair serpent. There are also many insects of divers kinds.

In the neighbourhood of the Cape are three principal eminences, called the Table-hill, Lion-hill and Wind-hill. There are no navigable rivers in this country, but the brooks and rivulets which descend from the mountains tend greatly to the fertilization of the land.

Captain Cook, when he touched at the Cape in his LAST voyage, went, accompanied by a party, to see a remarkable large stone in the colony of Drakenstein, called by the inhabitants The Tower of Babylon, or the Pearl Diamond. It stands on the top of some low

hills, of an oblong shape, rounded on the top, and lying nearly south and north. The circumference of this stone is about half a mile, as the party were half an hour walking round it, including allowances for stopping and a bad road. Its height seemed to equal the dome of St. Paul's cathedral in London. Except some few fissures, it is one uninterrupted mass of stone.

Cape Town, the principal European settlement here, situated in Cape-Colony, in 34 deg. 15 min. south lat. and 16 deg. 5 min. east long. is large, commodious, pleasant and populous; the streets are spacious, and regularly laid out; the houses are tolerably handsome, but very low, and only thatched; in general they have pleasant gardens behind, and neat court-yards before them. Building, as well as tillage, is greatly encouraged at the Cape, and land given for either purpose to those who chuse to accept of it; but then the government claims an annual tenth of the value of the former and produce of the latter, and a tithe of all purchase money when estates are sold. The town extends from the sea shore to the company's garden, spreading along the Table Bay. The fort is in a valley at a small distance, and its form is pentagonal: it commands the landing-place, and is garrisoned by 200 soldiers: the government store-houses are within it: the governor and other officers have apartments here, as well as 600 servants: the same number of slaves are lodged in a commodious building in the town, which is divided into two wards, the one for the men, and the other for the women; and the dissolute of either sex are sent to a house of correction.

The Dutch ships derive great benefit on their outward and homeward bound passages to and from India from the hospital founded here for diseased mariners.

The church is a large commodious edifice, elegantly plain, but the roof and steeple are thatched. Thatching, indeed, from the nature of the hurricanes, seems absolutely necessary, but from the method in which it was formerly done, it appears that it was frequently attended with danger, as we are informed that there were formerly shelving pent-houses erected on both sides the streets, to shelter passengers in rainy weather; but these brought the inhabitants under such dangers and inconveniences, that they were quickly all pulled down by order of the government. Sailors and Hottentots were continually crowding and smoaking their pipes under them, and sometimes through carelessness set them on fire. The government very dextrously laid hold of that occasion to rid the streets of those fellows that were continually pestering them, by publishing an order, which is still kept up, and from time to time republished, that no Hottentot or common sailor shall smook in the streets; with a declaration, that the sailor or Hottentot who should presume to do so shall be tied to the whipping-post, and severely lashed. This cleared the streets at once, and keeps them clear to this day, of all sailors and Hottentots who have no business there: for it is with great difficulty that either an Hottentot or a Dutch sailor, if they have tobacco, and they are seldom without it, can forbear smoaking while they are awake.

SECTION III.

Country of the Hottentots.

THE country of the Hottentots extends towards the north to the tropic of Capricorn, and on all other parts is bounded by the Southern Ocean. It is divided into twenty parts or provinces, which being independent of each other, are termed nations. These Hottentot States are as follow:

1. The country of Heykams. This country abounds in cattle, though there is no fodder but flags and reeds, nor any water but what is brackish.

2. The Camtours district contains the finest and most lofty trees of any in the country of the Hottentots. The land in general is flat, the soil rich, and the water excellent.

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Hottentot Entertainment of Music and Dancing.



Marriage Ceremony of the Hottentots.

Hawkes sculp

excellent. Here is plenty of sea and river fish, abundance of cattle, great quantities of game, and a variety of wild beasts.

3. The Houteniquas land contains many fine shady woods, and fair fertile meadows: the first are luxuriant in abundance of medicinal herbs; and the latter are beautifully enamelled with a great variety of fragrant flowers.

4. The country of the Gauriques, or Gauros, is a small, but plentiful territory. Wild beasts abound more here than in any other place within the vicinity of the Cape.

5. The people called Damaquas inhabit a district which abounds in cattle, game, hemp, and water melons. Wood is very scarce, and salt-pits are at once numerous and useless; for the Hottentots never eat any salt; and the pits are too far from the coast to be of any service to the Europeans. Those who travel through this territory are much obstructed by the serpentine river Palamites, which meanders through the whole country, and is passed upon floats, or in canoes, as the people have not the smallest idea of building a bridge.

6. Dunquas land is the least uneven, and most fertile place in this part of Africa. It is watered by several fine streams, which disembogue themselves into the river Palamites. Here is a profusion of cattle, game, fish, herbs, and flowers.

7. The Sonquas are but few in number, and inhabit a very barren, rocky country; from the nature of which, and the manner in which they pick up a subsistence, they may be termed the Swifs of the Cape. Cattle is so scarce among them, that they never kill any but upon certain solemn occasions; their food being either the game they provide themselves with in hunting, or such roots, plants, and herbs, as their poor country furnishes.

8. The Hessequas, or Gassequas, one of the richest and most polished of all the Hottentot nations; that is, they have the greatest quantity of cattle, the only criterion of riches, and are the most luxurious in their living, the sole mark of refinement which can be adduced in this country. Their kraals, or villages, are larger and better built; their bakkeleys, or oxen for carriage, stronger and more handsome; and their country is better inhabited than any other about the Cape. They have abundance of game, and, indeed, every thing that is necessary to convenience and pleasure in that tropical situation. Some of these people article themselves as servants to the Dutch for a certain term of years, and, during the stipulated space, act with the utmost integrity.

9. The Koopmans possess a large fertile territory, which contains many European settlements, and is well supplied with wood and water.

10. The Chainouquas territories are small and fertile. The people consist only of about 400 persons. They are, however, very rich in cattle, and generous to strangers.

11. The Cabonas inhabit a country situated near the tropic of Capricorn, and are reported to be anthropophagi, or men-eaters.

12. The country of the Hancumquas, which adjoins to the former, and lies in about the 26th degree of south latitude, is likewise very little known: we shall, therefore, not preserve the conjectures of others, as we mean to adopt nothing but what is well authenticated.

13. The Hensaquas differ from the other Hottentots in applying themselves to agriculture, as well as the breeding of cattle. They cultivate a singular root called dakha, the juice of which is sharp and spirituous. The substantial part serves them food, and the fluid is an intoxicating liquor, of which they are very fond. These people catch lions by traps, and have the peculiar art of taming them, so as to render them sociable and domestic. Some of the strongest and fiercest they breed for the purposes of war, and so perfectly well discipline them, that they are obedient to command, and attack furiously when ordered by their masters; so that by the

assistance of these tremendous light troops, the Hensaquas are exceeding formidable to their neighbours.

14. The Attaquas are poor, having but few cattle, which is owing to the barrenness of the country, and the want of water. This poverty of soil is, however, their grand security against invasion, as none care to steal that which is not worth having, or to run the hazard of their lives with a certain prospect of being losers.

15. The Chirigriquas inhabit a country bordering on the Bay of St. Helen's, and are a strong, active, bold people. The territory is watered by an excellent stream called the Elephant's River, on account of the great number of elephants which frequent its banks. This district abounds in mountains which are flat on the top, and the summits of some of them have all the verdure of the finest meadows. The vallies are admirably enamelled with the most beautiful flowers; but it is dangerous to enjoy their fragrancys, on account of the prodigious number of snakes with which they abound; that called Ceraustus being particularly venomous.

The Chirigriquas are very numerous, and are celebrated for being the most dexterous of any of the Hottentots in throwing the assagaye or half pike, which they do with a most critical exactness. This weapon is made of a taper stick about four feet long, armed at one end with an iron plate, sharp at the edge, and tapering to a point: the blade is always kept bright and clean, and when used in war is dipt in poison.

16. The people called Namaquas are divided into two nations; the Greater Namaquas inhabit the coast, and the Lesser Namaquas extend more to the eastward. Though the government of these two nations differ, the characters of the people are much the same: they are more polished, and possess a greater degree of reputation than any of the other Hottentots. Their strength, valour, fidelity, and discretion, are much admired even by Europeans.

17. The Odiquas inhabit a district to the north of Saldano Bay. They are in perpetual alliance with the Saffiquas, in order to defend each other mutually from the Chirigriquas, with whom they are continually at war.

18. The Saffiquas inhabit a country which is mountainous, but at the same time covered with verdure, and the vallies are finely enamelled with flowers. The natives were numerous, till driven away by the Dutch freebooters, so that it is now but thinly inhabited.

19. The territory of the Cochaquas is a fine country, particularly in pasturage, on which account a great extent of it is occupied by the Dutch farmers, who have the care of furnishing the Dutch East India ships with provisions.

20. The Gorenghaiconas, or Ghunjemans, dwell promiscuously with the Dutch, as they sold their country to those people, only reserving to each family a small portion of land.

The above names of the several Hottentot nations were not given to them by the Europeans, but are rendered agreeable to the sound of those appellations by which they distinguish each other. Nor is the word Hottentot a word of derision, as some suppose, but the name by which these people have called themselves time immemorial.

The Hottentots and the Caffres have been often confounded together by writers, but they are a different people, having a considerable dissimilarity even in person and features, as the Caffres are totally black, and the Hottentots of a dark olive colour.

SECTION IV.

Persons, Dress, Dispositions, Habitations, Furniture, Diet, Diversions, Music, Dancing, Hunting, Swimming, Marriages, Diseases, Physical and Chirurgical Operations, Funeral Ceremonies, &c.

THE Hottentots are as tall, and in general more slender than most Europeans. A late intelligent voyager affirms, that he was the first who remarked, that

that they have small hands and feet compared with other parts of their bodies, and mentions it as a characteristic mark of the nation. A flat nose being esteemed beautiful, as soon as a child is born they break the gristle of its nose.

Their complexion is of a dark olive, their lips are not so thick as those of several of their neighbours; their teeth are remarkably white, their eyes black, and their hair short, black and curled. Upon the whole, their persons may be said to be agreeable.

It has been an opinion generally received, that the Hottentot women have an exuberance, or rather excrescence of flesh, which veils such parts as decency teaches others to conceal. A notion has likewise prevailed that the males, at the age of ten years, by a kind of castration, are deprived of one of those organs necessary for the propagation of the species. But a physician of eminence, who travelled throughout this country, avers, that the Hottentots, in both these instances, have been misrepresented; as the former have no parts uncommon to the rest of their sex; and the men, at present, are by no means monorchides.

The Hottentots paint, or rather besmear, their bodies all over with grease and foot, which they deem ornamental. They likewise perfume themselves with a powder composed of herbs, by them called *bucku*, and considered as possessing great virtues in curing disorders.

The garments usually worn by these people is a sheep-skin, with the woolly side inwards. When the weather is not cold, it hangs loosely over their shoulders, reaching down to the calves of their legs, leaving the lower part of the breast, stomach, and fore part of the legs and thighs bare: but in rainy and cold weather they wrap it round them, so that the fore part of the body likewise is in some measure covered with it as far as below the knees.

As one sheep skin alone is not sufficient for this purpose, there is a piece sewed on at the top on each side, or rather fastened on with a thong, sinew, or cat-gut. In warmer weather they wear this cloak sometimes with the hairy side outwards, but frequently take it off, and carry it on their arms. The cloak, or *kaross*, (as they call it in broken Dutch,) serves them at the same time for cloathing and bedding, and in this they lie on the bare ground, drawing themselves up in a heap so close, especially when the weather is cold, that their *kaross* is sufficient to cover them. The women have a long peak on their *karosses*, which they turn up, forming with it a hood or little pouch, with the hairy side inwards. In this they carry their little children, to which their mothers breasts are now and then thrown over their shoulders. The men in general wear no peculiar covering on their heads. Those who live nearest to the colonists, indeed, fancy the European hats. The women go frequently bare-headed: sometimes they wear a cap, in the form of a short truncated cone.

Both sexes often wear beads and other ornaments in their ears, and round their necks and wrists. Impending from a collar round the neck of the men is a pouch, which contains their pipe, tobacco, knife, *dakha*, &c. On their backs are slung a bow and quiver. They also carry a lance or javelin affixed to a long stick, by way of defence against the wild beasts.

Indolence and intoxication are the predominant vices of the Hottentots, and these will easily account for any enormities into which their votaries may be hurried, though they have the general character of being very honest.

Their habitations are as homely as their dress, scarcely meriting any other name than that of huts. The great simplicity of these huts is, perhaps, the reason for which in an Hottentot *kraal*, or village, the huts are all built exactly alike. Most of them are of a semi-circular, and some of an oblong shape, resembling a bee hive or a vault. The highest of them are so low, that even in the center of the arch it is scarcely possible for even a middle-sized man to stand upright. The entrance is in the middle of each hut. The door, low

as it is, is the only place that lets in the day-light, and, at the same time, the only out-let that is left for the smoke. The materials for these huts are by no means difficult to be procured; and the manner of putting them together being inartificial, is very suitable to the character of the Hottentot. When an Hottentot has a mind to take his house down, and remove his dwelling, he lays all the materials on the backs of his cattle, and by that means conveys them to the spot he has fixed upon for removal. Their furniture consists of two or three earthen pots for dressing their victuals, which is generally herbs, flesh, or shell-fish. As they are the most indolent, so they are the most nasty people in the universe; yet such as confine themselves to the natural diet of the country live to a great age; but though their common drink is milk or water, many of them drink brandy and other strong liquors to such excess, as to shorten their lives. Both sexes are very fond of tobacco.

The Hottentots use a variety of diversions. They have frequent festive meetings, which usually conclude with music, singing, and dancing. Their musical instruments are the greater and lesser gongom and the drum. The gongom is a bow of iron or olive-wood, strunged with sheeps sinews. At one end of the bow a quill is placed upon the string, and a cocoa shell fastened to it by two holes. The mouth is applied to the quill, and the player blows and modulates his breath as in playing on a Jew's harp. The drum is made of earthen ware, and covered with sheep skin braced on with sinews. The vocal music is confined to a few songs, and a frequent repetition of the monosyllable "ho," by way of chorus. When they are to have a dance, the men squat down in a circle; then several couple present themselves; but only two couple enter the ring at the same time, performing face to face. Sometimes they dance back to back, but never take hands.

The Hottentots are excellent hunters, and display great dexterity in discharging and throwing their weapons. In hunting the lion, or any other wild beast, they attack him with their *assagayes*, and goad him till he drops down with loss of blood. Elephants are sometimes taken by digging a hole in the paths through which they go to their watering places, and covering it over with boughs. When the animal falls into one of these holes, the stake runs into him, and entangles him, till the natives surround the place and destroy him.

The Hottentots are very skilful in fishing, either with net or hook, and are deemed some of the most expert swimmers in the world.

Hottentot marriages are made by the parents or nearest relations. If the female does not approve of the match, she is obliged to remain with the bridegroom all night: if he forces her to consummation, she is compelled to be his wife; but, on the contrary, if she preserves herself uncontaminated, she is ever after free from him. The day after the nuptials an ox is killed to feast the company, who tear the flesh from the bones, and smear themselves with the fat, powder each other with *bukhu*, and paint themselves with red chalk.

The marriage ceremony itself is thus performed: the men squat in a circle, as they do indeed upon most other occasions, and the bridegroom is placed in the center: the women squat, and form another circle to surround the bride: the priest then goes from one circle to the other, and alternately urines on both bride and bridegroom, who make furrows with their nails in the grease with which they are plaistered, in order to rub in the precious libation. The priest then pronounces the benediction in these words; "May you live happily together; may you have a son before the year's end, may he be a good huntsman and a great warrior."

Those of the Hottentots who live in their natural manner are rarely afflicted with diseases, to which those who reside among the Europeans are very liable. Their practitioners are equally skilled in medicine and surgery. They perform astonishing cures by their botanical knowledge. In bleeding they are only provided with a common

common clasp knife and a strap. When they have taken away as much blood as is thought necessary, the orifice is closed, and rubbed with mutton fat, and then the leaf of some herb is bound over it.

With all this skill they are very superstitious, and fond of divination. In order to know the fate of a sick person, they flea a sheep alive: if the poor animal, in this plight, is able to get up and run away, the omen is esteemed favourable; but, on the contrary, if it dies with the excruciating pain, it is deemed fatal to the patient, who is therefore totally neglected.

Savage as these people are, their physicians are much more liberal than those of civilized countries, as they prescribe gratis, and think the honour of having done good a sufficient recompence for their pains. Each village hath usually two, who are chosen from the wisest and most experienced of the people, to be the guardians of the public health. The Europeans who reside at the Cape are, in general, healthy. The small-pox and measles are not so malignant as in most other countries. The bloody flux usually attacks new comers; and the principal disorders among the Cape Europeans are sore eyes and sore throats in both sexes, and sore breasts in the women: but the country produces many efficacious remedies, which are usually applied with success when wanted.

When a Hottentot falls sick, his friends make a doleful noise around him; but when he expires, their howlings become truly hideous. A corpse is always bent double, and being tied neck and heels, it is wrapped up in the karos or mantle of the defunct. They usually bury the body in the cleft of a rock, or the den of some wild beast, as they are too lazy to dig a grave, if they can find one ready made. They inter their dead six hours after they expire, or at least six hours after they fancy they expire; for it is imagined that many are buried alive by this precipitation. Previous to the funeral, the men and women squat down in separate circles before the hut of the deceased. The body is then brought out, not through the door, but through the side of the hut, the mats being loosened for that purpose. During the whole ceremony the company clap their hands, and cry *ho, ho, ho*. The corpse is then followed without order, only each sex keeps separate from the other, when the howlings and grimaces are truly ridiculous. The grave is filled up with the mould of ant-hills, and well secured from the depredations of wild-beasts, by being heavily covered, and defended with wood and stones. The company then return to the hut, squat down as before, each sex in a circle, and renew their yellings. A signal is then given for them to cease the hideous noise, when the two oldest men in the village step into each circle, and urinate upon the company, who rub in the precious liquor with singular satisfaction. Afterwards entering the hut of the deceased, these elders take up a handful of ashes each, with which they powder the mourners. This ceremony, at the decease of rich persons, is repeated several times, but the poor have it only once performed. The latter likewise only mourn by shaving their heads, but the former give an *anderfaken*, or feast, when the lamentations are concluded, at which time a sheep is killed, and the cawl, well powdered with *bakhu*, is put about the neck of the heir to the defunct, who is obliged to wear it till it rots off, as a memorial of his respect for the dead.

The Hottentots sometimes expose their old men, when they become decrepid, in the forests, to be devoured by wild beasts. This, however, is done without the advice of the chief men of the kraal.

They have neither temples or idols, nor any peculiar place of worship. They celebrate, indeed, nocturnal dances, with singing, at the new and full moon; but these are rather pastimes, than any thing relative to religious worship.

They are so attached to the manners and customs of their own country, that it has never yet been in the power of the Dutch to bring them over to those of Eu-

ropeans. There is an instance of an Hottentot who had been taken from Caffraria while an infant, and instructed in the learning, customs, and religion of the Europeans; but, on returning to his native country, he abandoned all the advantages of education, returned his European dress to his master, put on the sheep-skin mantle, and never more appeared among the Dutch.

SECTION V.

Civil, Military, and Commercial State of the Hottentots.

AMONGST the Hottentots every nation or tribe is governed by a national chief, called *Konquer*, whose office is to command the army, conduct negotiations of peace, and preside in the councils. Without him they can make neither peace or war. His installation is attended with great pomp and solemnity. Next to the *Konquer* is the *Kraal Captain*. Every village has one of these, who looks to the preservation of peace, the administration of justice, and in war holds command under the national chief. He is bound by solemn engagement to the people, not to alter or deviate from the ancient laws or customs of his kraal. He hears and decides all disputes of right and property, and tries and punishes for crimes within his jurisdiction.

Justice is dispensed among the Hottentots with a most laudable impartiality. If the criminality of the very captain of the kraal is proved, he is seized as rudely, persecuted as severely, and punished as ignominiously as the poorest and meanest. The charge against a culprit is pronounced by the prosecutor, whose witnesses are heard by the court. The culprit makes his defence, and has his witnesses heard with the greatest indulgence. The captain, after debates on the evidence, collects the voices, the majority of which acquits or condemns. If the latter, and the crime be death, sentence is pronounced, and execution done immediately on the spot, without a moment's time to confer with friends. The captain having pronounced the fatal word, the court rises, but the criminal stirs not a limb. After a profound silence for a minute or two, the captain flies at him as in a rage, and, with one blow on the head with the *kirri stick*, fells him to the ground, when the rest fall on and complete the execution, by beating him to a mummy, and breaking several of his limbs. He is then interred in the manner already described; but his family and relations suffer nothing in name, privilege, or property. No mortal is reproached with the memory of his crime or punishment; an example worthy the imitation of the most civilized nations.

The Hottentots have very little notion of military discipline. The causes of war are chiefly three; trespassing on each others districts, stealing the cattle, or running away with the wives of their neighbours. Disputes are decided between two nations by fighting one battle, the success of which determines the whole affair. They shew great generosity of sentiment, never plunder the dead, but suffer their friends to bury them, and dispose of their arms as they think fit.

The wealth of an Hottentot consists in the number of his flocks, and commerce is carried on here entirely by barter. The articles of the natives are cattle, skins, elephants teeth, ostriches eggs, &c. in return for which they receive from Europeans, brandy, wine, tobacco, dakh, coral, beads, brass, copper, iron, &c. But a Hottentot will not sell his arms, nor even a single weapon, upon any consideration. They are very just and upright in their dealings. From proofs of their dexterity in some handicraft professions, it appears they would be expert in most, were they not prevented by their prevailing indolence from the prosecution of them.

SECTION VI.

Description of a Race of Hottentots, called Boshies.

THAT species of Hottentots called Boshies are sworn enemies to the pastoral life, their maxims being to live on hunting and plunder, and never to keep any animal alive for the space of one night. Their dwellings are as hideous as their maxims and manners. Like the wild beasts, bushes and cliffs in rocks by turns serve them instead of houses. Many of them are entirely naked; but such as can procure the skin of any animal, great or small, cover their bodies with it, from the shoulders downwards, as far as it will reach, wearing it till it falls off their backs in rags. As ignorant of agriculture as apes and monkeys, like them they are obliged to wander about over hills, after certain wild roots, berries, and plants, (which they eat raw,) in order to sustain a life that this miserable food would soon extinguish and destroy, were they used to better fare.

The capture of slaves from among this race of men is effected in the following manner. Several farmers, that are in want of servants, join together, and take a journey to that part of the country where the Boshies live. They themselves, with their attendants, who are Boshies that have been caught before, and trained up to fidelity in their service, endeavour to spy out the haunts of that wild race. This is best done by the smoke of their fires. They are found in societies, from 10 to 50, and sometimes 100, reckoning great and small together. Notwithstanding this, the farmers will venture, on a dark night, to set upon them with six or eight people, which they contrive to do by previously stationing themselves at a distance round about the spot. They then give the alarm by firing a gun or two. By this means there is such a consternation spread over the whole body of these savages, that it is only the most bold and intelligent among them, that have courage to break through the circle and steal off. The rest allow themselves to be taken, and carried into bondage. They are at first treated by gentle means; that is, the captors intermix the fairest promises with their threats, and endeavour, if possible, to shoot some of the larger kinds of game for their prisoners, such as buffalos, sea-cows, and the like. Such agreeable baits, together with a little tobacco, soon induce them, continually feasted as they are, to go with some degree of cheerfulness to the place of abode of the colonists. Then this luxurious living in meat is exchanged for more moderate portions, consisting mostly of butter-milk, frumerty, and hasty-pudding. This diet, however, fattens the Boshies in a few weeks. Their good living, indeed, is embittered by the taunts and grumbings of the master and mistress, to which are sometimes added curses and blows, for neglect, remissness, or idleness: so that by nature and custom detesting all manner of

labour, and now, from greater corpulency, becoming still more slothful, and having, besides, been used to a wandering life, subject to no controul, they most sensibly feel the want of liberty. No wonder then that they generally endeavour to regain it by making their escape. But what is really a subject for wonder, when any one of them runs from his service, or, more properly, bondage, he never takes with him any thing that does not belong to him. This is an instance of moderation in the savages towards their tyrants which is universally asserted, and at the same time praised and admired by the colonists themselves. It is necessary to observe here, that some of these Boshies live in small societies, peaceably and quietly, in desert tracks, where the colonists cannot easily come at them, and are sometimes in the possession of a few cows.

With respect to religion, these people, in general, are not sensible of the existence of any being who is the origin and ruler of all things; for some of them, who spoke Dutch, being questioned upon the subject, by a learned traveller, answered him to this effect: "We are poor stupid creatures, and have never heard, neither are we able to understand, any thing of the matter." Many of the colonists declared, that the Boshies of both sexes used, in stormy weather, to abuse the thunder with reproachful expressions; and, at the same time, in a furious manner, with their shoes, or any thing else that was at hand, threaten and bid defiance to the flashes of lightning, and peals of thunder, that flashed and rolled over their heads. Nay, they most obstinately persisted in declaring that rain was always an evil, and that it would be a happy circumstance were it never to rain.

They seem to have some idea of spirits, and of a future state, as they accost their friends, as soon as they are dead, with reproaches for leaving them so soon, at the same time admonishing them henceforth to demean themselves properly; by which they mean that their deceased friends should not come back again to haunt them, nor allow themselves to be made use of by wizards, to bring any mischief on those that survive them.

There is a genus of insects, called the mantis, or gold beetle, and deemed by the colonists the Hottentots god. They think it would be a crime, as well as very dangerous, to do any harm to these insects: but it is added, by a celebrated writer, that the species is by no means an object of religious worship.

The moon, according to some writers, receives a kind of adoration from the Hottentots. But the fact is, that they merely take the opportunity of her beams, and at the same time of the coolness of the night, to amuse themselves with dancing, and consequently have no more thoughts of worshipping the moon than the European colonists, who are seen at the same time strolling in great numbers about the streets, and parading on the stone steps with which their houses are usually encircled.

C H A P. II.

C A F F R E R I A P R O P E R.

Including *Mataman*, or the Country of the *Caffres*, *Terra de Natal*, and *Terra dos Funos*.

SECTION I.

M A T A M A N, OR C L I M B E D E.

A GEOGRAPHER of repute says, that Mataman is properly the name of the kings, that of the country being Climbede. It is bounded by the river Bravaghul on the east and west, by Bengulea on the north, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the south. The first place worthy of observation in this kingdom is

Cape Negro, or Black Cape, which receives its appellation from its sable appearance to mariners, when at a considerable distance at sea. At the extremity of the northern angle is a bay about six miles broad; and on the summit of the mountain is a pillar of alabaster, with the arms of Portugal upon it. Beneath the 18th deg. of south lat. lies Cape Ruy-Piz, which extends about 10 leagues north-west. Gulfo-Frio, and the Cape of the same name, lie in 18 deg. 35 min. and the Bay of St. Ambrose in 21 deg. south latitude.

The

The coast here is very sandy, but the climate is tolerably mild, considering the tropical situation of the country. The inland parts are fruitful, and a variety of trees abound towards the north. The Dutch judge of their approach to this coast by the flight of the birds called mews, as these never fly above 20 leagues from land. There is likewise another token by which sailors know when they are near the shore, that is, the floating of the weed called fargossa upon the surface of the waters. The government of Climbede is despotic, and the whole country subject to one sovereign, subordinate to whom are a few petty lords, who stile themselves princes, though their dominions consist only of a small number of scattered towns towards the sea coast.

SECTION II.

Country of the CAFFREES.

THIS country is bounded on the north by the province of Ohila, on the south by the country of the Hottentots, on the east by Monomotapa, and on the west by Mataman or Climbede.

The province of Abutua is said to abound in gold mines. The province of Toraca contains many iron mines, and in the midst of them is a surprising fabric, being a capacious square castle, built of polished free-stone. The stones are very large, and placed upon each other without any kind of cement. The walls are near nine feet thick, and contain several inscriptions, which none have yet been able to explain, or even guess to what language the characters belong. As the inhabitants are unacquainted with the name of the founder of this extraordinary pile, they compliment the devil with the honour of having been the architect. The nearest stone building to this castle is a Portuguese fort, which, however, is 200 leagues from it. The town of Fatuca, near this place, is rich in gold and precious stones. Boro and Quitici likewise abound in gold mines; and Chicova, which lies more to the north-east, contains many silver mines.

The following narrative, extracted from an account of the loss of the Grosvenor East-Indiaman, and the subsequent fate of the people, in 1782, is inserted as the best description of the *uncultivated natives* of this country.

This ship sailed from Trincomale, on their passage to India from London, the 13th of June, having on board 142 sailors, passengers, &c. and on the 4th of August following, about 4 A. M. was wrecked on that part of the coast of Africa inhabited by the Caffrees, a savage people, separated from the Hottentots by an uninhabited country.

When the people on board found the ship must be irrecoverably lost, two lascars swam ashore, and made a hawser fast to a large rock, by means of which all the crew got on shore, except 15, who were drowned in the attempt.

About noon the ship parted by the fore-chains, and in an hour after by the main-chains, at which time there were near 100 persons on board. They got the women passengers out of the starboard quarter gallery, the rest standing on the starboard side of the ship, and when she parted, the side sunk down into the sea with them all upon it, and floated into shallow water, when the sailors helped the ladies and children on shore by the body of the swell, while others got ashore on the fore part of the ship.

As soon as they had a little recovered from their fright, they made a rent with a new mizen top-sail for the ladies, &c. on the flattish part of the rock; and here they continued from the Sunday morning, the time the wreck happened, till the Wednesday following, when they all set out to travel to the Cape of Good Hope. Their arms consisted only of five or six cut-lasses. There were, indeed, plenty of fire-arms thrown on shore, but they were of little use for want of gun-powder.

At the time they set out the chief-mate was exceeding ill, and therefore obliged to be carried. The second mate led the van, the ladies went in the middle, and the captain brought up the rear. On the third day after leaving the wreck they met with one of the natives, from whom the captain took his lance. The Caffree endeavoured, by signs, to get it back, but to no purpose, on which he precipitately ran away, and in a short time returned with a great number of others, all armed with lances and targets. The captain placed the ladies, and those who were unable to do any thing, on a rising ground with the baggage, and, assisted by the crew, attacked the natives, who fled with the utmost precipitation. They, however, soon after returned, and brought sweet potatoes to exchange for the lances, staves, and sticks they had thrown at our people. They sat themselves down in a circle, and the captain giving them some toys, which he happened to have about him, they arose, and went away with great seeming satisfaction.

On the evening of the 12th of August they were surrounded by another body of the natives, who wanted to take from them their buttons, &c. and to search the ladies, but, by the vigilance of the English people, they were prevented from their design, and obliged to fly. In the morning they came to a river (which was the first they had met with after leaving the ship,) and through this river the ladies waded breast high, being supported by the sailors, some of whom carried over the children in their arms.

After crossing the river the Lascars and a black maid left them first. These were followed by some others, who set out in straggling parties, leaving the captain and ladies behind, together with 16 officers, 9 seamen, 12 passengers and children, 7 black men and women servants, and a French officer and his servant.

From this period the body became more and more divided, some going one way, and some another: and the only accounts that could be collected of what happened after, were from four of the crew who belonged to as many different parties, and who were the only four that reached England. The relation given by each of these was truly deplorable, being sometimes almost perished with hunger and thirst, and at other times in the most imminent danger from the savageness of the natives, the consequences of whose ferocity they avoided either by opposition and resolution, or pliability and condescension.

No account (to be depended on) could be given of what became of the captain, ladies, and children. It was supposed they fell into the hands of the natives. But the issue of their fate time only can discover.

At the time of the melancholy catastrophe of the ship, there were 142 sailors, passengers, and Lascars on board. But the four who returned to England, and gave the relation of what passed after the wreck, only account for 102, viz. 15 drowned; 46 left with the captain, and not since heard of; 17 left in the desert, and probably perished; 15 died in the desert; 2 left at the Cape; 3 went to Denmark; and 4 arrived in England.

The calamities of the crew and passengers belonging to this ship, it is probable, might have arisen from want of proper management with the Caffrees. We have been informed by late navigators, who touched at the Cape of Good Hope, that some of the surviving part of these sufferers are still living, and are (in the way of the natives) treated in a manner as would reflect no disgrace on a polite European.

SECTION III.

TERRA DE NATAL.

THIS country, called Terra de Natal from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Christmas-day, takes about 3 deg. lat. from north to south. It was likewise, as well as the Cape, purchased by the Dutch, for

for the convenience of commerce. The natives are neither so indolent or so filthy as the Hottentots. The river Dellagoa, which bounds the country on the north, is navigable, and has been frequented by European ships, for the purposes of trade. There is plenty of water here. The wood produces good timber, and the fields kindly grass. They have variety of beast, and birds. But though the sea and rivers abound with fish, the natives seldom take any but tortoises, and that chiefly when they come ashore to lay.

The natives of this country are but of a middle stature, yet have very good limbs; the colour of their skins is black, and their hair crisped; they are oval-visaged; their noses neither flat or high, but very well proportioned; their teeth are white, and their aspect altogether graceful. Their chief employment is agriculture. Their cattle, which are numerous, they carefully attend. The men and women have their respective occupations, and their apparel is light but mean. Their ordinary subsistence is Guinea corn, beef, fish, milk, hen-eggs, &c. They are of a facetious and social disposition. They purchase their wives, a circumstance which renders a female progeny advantageous. They live in small villages, under the government of the oldest man; and those who live in one village are all related; and, as an amiable characteristic, they are just and civil to strangers.

SECTION IV.

TERRA DOS FUMOS.

THIS small country is bounded on the south by the river Dallagoa; which separates it from Terra de Natal; on the north by Zanguana; on the west by the country of Naontas; and the eastern ocean on the east. It extends from the mouth of the river Dellagoa, to the mouth of the river De Ladroon, or Teude; the first appellation signifying the river of robbers, which is, in 26 deg. 40 min. south lat. The only places worthy of notice here are, Cape Pedras, which is in about the 29th deg. of south lat. Potto de Pe Pesqueria, or the Fishing-place, which is a little beyond the former; and the bay of St. Lucia, which is between the latter and the Ladroon river. The Portuguese, who either named places from the saint's day on which they discovered them, or from some trivial circumstance which they observed when they first saw them, gave this country the name of Terra dos Fumos, or the Land of Smoak, from perceiving some smoak on their first approaching this shore. The Europeans as yet have not made any settlement here, and the Caffrees who inhabit the place live in a simple state of nature, without towns, villages, or settled habitations, and frequently indeed without even moveable huts.

CHAPTER III.

MONOMOTAP A.

MONOMOTAPA is an extensive empire, bounded on the east by the kingdom of Safala; on the west, by the mountains of Caffreria; on the north, by the river Cuama, which separates it from Monœmugi; and on the south, by the river del Spiritu Sancto. It is situated between the 14th and 25th deg. of south lat. and between the 41st and 56th of east long. being 960 miles in length from east to west, and 660 in breadth from north to south.

This country is divided into six provinces, or petty kingdoms, the governors of which are vassals to the king or emperor of Monomotapa. The names of these provinces are, Monomotapa Proper, Quiteve, Manica, Inhambana, Inhamior, and Sabia.

Monomotapa Proper is the most considerable of the whole, and particularly distinguished for containing the capital city of the empire. It is situated in 11 deg. 27 min. south lat. and 31 deg. 10 min. east long. It is a large and populous city, and the streets are very long and spacious. The houses are built with timber and earth, and are of different sizes. The greatest ornament of the city is the imperial palace, which is a large spacious fabric, well flanked with towers, having four avenues, or stately gates, constantly kept by a numerous guard.

The other towns in this province are all very insignificant, except one called Tete, which is large and populous, and remarkable for being the residence of the Portuguese jesuits.

Quiteve lies to the south of Monomotapa Proper, and is bounded on the east by Sabia, on the west by Caffreria, and on the south by Manica. The capital city is called Lambave, and is situated about 120 miles from Monomotapa Proper. It is a large and populous city, and the place where the king or governor of the province usually resides.

The province of Manica is bounded on the east by Sabia, on the west by Caffreria, on the north by Quiteve, and on the south by the river de Spiritu Sancto. The capital town is called after the name of the province, but it is a small place, and very poorly inhabited.

Inhambana lies southward from the above province under the tropic of Capricorn, so that the air here is exceeding sultry. The capital town is called Tongue, which, though small, is very populous, owing to the number of Portuguese that reside there.

The province of Inhamior is very extensive, but contains nothing that merits particular notice. Its chief town of the same name is the constant residence of the king or governor of the province.

Sabia is also very large, and well watered by several excellent rivers, one of which is called Sabia, and the other Arce. On the coast of this kingdom is the island of Bocica, and the capes of St. Sebastian and St. Catharine.

The climate of Monomotapa is much more wholesome than many other parts of Africa, and the soil is so fertile that it produces a great plenty of the principal necessaries of life. It abounds with pasture grounds, on which are bred prodigious quantities of cattle, especially oxen and cows.

The natives here are in general tall, well-shaped strong, and healthy: they are quite black, and have woolly hair, which they ornament with a great variety of trinkets. They are of a very sprightly and docile disposition, notwithstanding which they are fond of being engaged in war, and prefer that employment to any other. The poorer sort are brought up to diving, and their chief business is to get the sand or mud from the bottom of the rivers, ponds and lakes, from which they separate the gold that is intermixed with it, and sell it to the Portuguese in exchange for cotton and various other articles of merchandize.

Their common food is the flesh of oxen and elephants, with bread made of rice or millet, which is baked into thin cakes; and their drink is either sour milk or water. The better sort use strong liquors made from honey, millet, rice, and several sorts of fruits; but they mostly esteem palm-wine, which is reckoned a royal liquor, and greatly used at court.

Polygamy is allowed here, as in most other parts of Africa, every man being permitted to take as many wives

wives as he can maintain; but the first wife is the principal, and the children born from her inherit the father's estate.

They pay a religious worship to the dead, every one preserving the bones of the most distinguished of his family. These they hang up in a court, and know to whom they belonged by fixing certain marks on them. Every seventh day the relations go and visit them, being all dressed in white, which is the mourning of the country. They spread a table before them with provisions, then pray to the deceased for the king's prosperity, and afterwards sit down and regale themselves, which they look upon as the greatest honour that can be paid to the defunct.

The king, or emperor of Monomotapa, has a prodigious number of wives, the principal of whom are the daughters of some of his vassal princes; but the first only is called empress, or queen. The princess and ladies of the highest rank always attend upon him; they discharge this business in their turns, and think it the highest honour to be so employed. He is waited upon also by a great number of officers, who keep most profound silence, except when he drinks, or happens to sneeze or cough, at which time one of them cries aloud, "Pray for the health and prosperity of the emperor:" as soon as the words are repeated they all kneel, then rise, and testify their joy by the loudest acclamations.

He also takes great pains to preserve the respect of his subjects: he exacts no taxes or tribute from them, instead of which he is satisfied with a trifling present when they apply to him for any particular favour.

This is an universal custom from an inferior to a superior of every rank or denomination, and esteemed the highest mark of respect that can be shewn. If at any time he orders his subjects to labour either at the gold mines, or any other service, (as is sometimes the case), he always sends them cows and other provisions, so that instead of attending with reluctance, they obey his commands with the greatest cheerfulness.

His ministers and officers, both civil and military, as well as his soldiery, who subsist by his pay, are indeed obliged, instead of taxes, to pay him a kind of service of seven days in every month, either in cultivating his grounds, or any other work he thinks proper to employ them in; the lords and nobles are also bound to the same service when required, unless exempted from it by some particular privilege granted to their family or office.

The emperor maintains a numerous army of foot, for he has no cavalry, there being but few horses, and those not fit for the purpose, throughout his dominions. Wherever the emperor encamps they always erect a

large wooden house, in which a fire must be kept constantly burning. Neither he or any of his soldiers are permitted to wash their hands or face while the war continues; when it is over, and they have gained a complete victory, the spoil is divided, the emperor reserving one part to himself and distributing the rest in proportionable shares to his officers and men. This equitable distribution has an excellent effect, as it animates the men, and makes them fight with distinguished intrepidity.

The laws of this country are very few, and so little occasion is there for the confinement of criminals, that there is not a single prison throughout the whole empire. Those found guilty of murder are punished with death; but in trifling matters they only inflict corporal punishment, which is done by giving the party a certain number of strokes with a knotted cord, according to the nature of the crime.

Here are gold mines in the inland parts, which have produced considerable advantages to the Portuguese. There are other mines in different parts of the empire that produce excellent metal, particularly those near Batua, a small place bordering on the province of Manica, and extending itself from the Mountains of the Moon to the river Magnico, whose governor is a vassal to the emperor.

There are several considerable places between the mines and the sea-coast, where fairs and markets are held for the sale of gold, particularly at those towns which lie on the river Zezebe, and Cuama, where the Portuguese have built fortresses to keep the natives in awe, who come to those markets to exchange their gold for European and other commodities. In each of these markets they have an officer of their own, who decides all contests and differences that arise about their traffic; they have likewise in most of these towns churches and monasteries of the Dominican order.

The emperor of Monomotapa first permitted the Portuguese to build their forts here, in gratitude for the service they had done in contributing to reduce some revolted vassals to return to their obedience, as well as to enable them, on all such exigencies, to be near at hand to assist him. This was about the year 1640, since which time they have been on good terms with the sovereigns of the empire.

The commodities which they bring the natives are chiefly cloths of various sorts, glass beads of different sizes and colours, and other trifling trinkets; in exchange for which, besides gold, they receive great quantities of ivory, furs of sundry wild and tame beasts, and other valuable articles, which makes their commerce here very advantageous.

C H A P. IV.

S O F A L A.

SOFALA is an extensive kingdom, and, like Monomotapa, remarkable for containing many excellent mines of gold. It is bounded on the east by the Indian sea, on the west by the province of Manica, on the north by the empire of Monomotapa, and on the south by the kingdom of Sabia. It is, properly speaking, a continued coast, extending itself from the river Cuama on the north, to that of Magnico, or Del Spiritu Sancto, on the south. The inland parts are very trifling in extent, being confined on the west by the empire of Monomotapa, notwithstanding which the whole kingdom is computed to be at least 2250 miles in compass.

The most considerable rivers of this country are the Cuama and the Del Spiritu Sancto, both of which are supposed to take their rise from the lake Goyama. The former received its name from the Portuguese, but it is generally called by the natives Zambeze. This

river washes down great quantities of gold, which the negroes gather when the waters are low, by diving to the bottom of such parts of it as, from practice, they know contain the greatest abundance. They bring up the mud in buckets, which being properly levigated, easily discovers the metal.

On the coast are several capes, the principal of which are called Corientes, St. Catharine and Sebastian. The former is situated under the 23d deg. of south latitude: it is noted for the many rocks, sands and shelves that lie between it and the island of St. Laurence, or Madagascar, and cause frequent shipwrecks along that channel.

The climate of this kingdom is very unwholesome, occasioned by the vast number of marshes, which being in summer dried up by the scorching heat of the sun, infect the air with pestilential steams. The soil, in

general is very uneven, barren, and desert. The inland parts abound with various sorts of wild beasts, but particularly elephants, great numbers of which are annually killed by the natives, not only for the sake of their flesh, which is the chief part of their food; but also for their teeth, which they sell to great advantage to the Europeans. The number of these animals destroyed here by the natives is said, one year with another, to amount to near 4000.

The inhabitants of this kingdom are in general well-shaped, and have short curled hair: they cover themselves only from the waist to the knees, with a garment made of silk or cotton; but they adorn their arms, wrists, legs and ankles, with rings of gold, amber, or coloured beads; the better sort wear turbans on their heads, and have swords by their sides, the handles of which are made of ivory curiously inlaid with precious stones.

Their food consists of the flesh of elephants, large and small cattle, and fish, with which the rivers abound; instead of bread, they use rice and millet. The drink of the common people is water, but the better sort have a kind of beer, which is made of rice and millet; they have also some strong liquors made from honey, palm and other fruits.

The king and his court, with a great number of the principal people, are descendants of Arabs, and not only speak that language, but also strictly profess the Mahometan religion; the original natives are permitted to retain their antient customs, as also their religious maxims, the latter of which are much the same as those observed in the principal parts of Africa.

Sofala, the metropolis of this kingdom, is the only place of any note in it, and is pleasantly situated on a small island at the mouth of the river Cuama. The Portuguese have built a strong fortress here, which is of infinite service to them, as it secures their ships in the harbour when they stop here in their passage to and from India. The articles they purchase of the natives are gold, ambergris, slaves, and elephants teeth; in exchange for which they supply them with silks, stuffs, cotton, glass beads, and other trinkets. Both the fortress and island are tributary to the king of Portugal.

The king keeps a great number of soldiers, who are

all paid in gold dust, each according to his rank. Their original weapons were bows and arrows, the scymetar, javelin, dagger, and hatchet; but since the arrival of the Portuguese, they have been taught the use of fire-arms, of which they are very fond, and exercise them with great dexterity.

The inhabitants of Quiloa, Mombaza, and Melinda, come to this country in small boats called tambues, with stuffs of blue and white cottons, silk stuffs, yellow and red ambergris, which they exchange with the people here for gold and ivory. These again sell them to the inhabitants of Monomotapa, who give them gold in return without weighing it, so that the profit of the exchange is very considerable. This is the reason that when the Monomotapans come to purchase these articles, as soon as the Sofalans perceive their vessels at sea, they signify their joy, and bid them welcome, by lighting fires on the shore.

The gold mines of this kingdom are said to yield above two millions of metigals per annum, each metigal amounting to fourteen livres; that the ships from Zidem and Mecca carry off about two millions a year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mosambique, whose office lasts but three years, has above 300,000 crowns revenue, without including the soldiers pay, and the tribute annually paid to the king of Portugal. From hence many learned men are of opinion that this is the Ophir whither Solomon sent ships every three years from Esiongeler to fetch gold; Esiongeler being thought to be Suez, a sea-port on the Red Sea. This conjecture is supported by the remains of several stately edifices, which are found in the different parts where the gold mines are situated, and, from their appearance, are supposed to have been originally palaces or castles, built by that opulent prince the king of Israel. It may also be confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who translate the word Ophri (1 Kings ix. 28.) into Sophira, which has some resemblance to its present name of Sofala. As a further confirmation of these conjectures, Lopez, in his voyage to India, says, the inhabitants of this country boast that they have books which prove that, in the time of Solomon, the Israelites sailed every third year towards these parts to fetch gold.

C H A P V.

M O N O E M U G I.

THE empire of Monoemugi being an inland country, is very little frequented by the Europeans. It is bounded on the east by part of Zanguebar, on the west by Matamba and Makoko, on the north by Abyssinia, and on the south by the empire of Monomotapa.

The account we have of this country is chiefly founded on the authority of the Negroes, who carry on a commerce with it, European travellers not daring to venture themselves into it, not only by reason of the unwholesomeness of the climate, but also for fear of the inhuman Jaggas, who infest the more interior parts of it, and massacre all that happen to fall in their way.

The extent of this country cannot be ascertained, but that it is very great appears from the distance of its confines. The emperor is a powerful and rich prince, and has subdued most of the petty kingdoms about him to obedience.

The empire of Monoemugi is divided into five kingdoms or provinces, all of which are governed by petty princes subject to the emperor. The names of these are as follow, viz. Mujaco, Gingiro, Cambate, Alaba, and Monoemugi Proper.

Mujaco is bounded on the east by Abyssinia, on the west by Congo, on the north by Nubia, and on the south by Makoko. It is a large kingdom, but very

poorly inhabited; neither does it contain any thing that deserves particular notice.

Gingiro, which is also a large kingdom, lies between Narea, the most southern kingdom of Abyssinia, and Makoko and Cambate. A writer, who travelled thro' this kingdom, says, the king preserves an extraordinary dignity, and that he contends with the sun; for which reason he never goes abroad, or gives audience, but before the sun rises, alledging that two suns cannot appear at once. His palace is no better than a cottage, which, when he dies, is always burnt, and his successor has a new one built for him, which is dedicated with the blood of two or three men of a certain family killed at the door, and on that account the said family is free from all other duties, which are so heavy, that they render this cruel composition acceptable; for when the king buys any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in slaves, and these are the sons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleasure without any contradiction.

Cambate joins to the above kingdom on the west, and is bounded on the east by Alaba, on the north by Abyssinia, and on the south by Makoko. It is a poor country, and badly inhabited.

Alaba

Alaba is a large kingdom, and situated on the coast of Cambate. It reaches to the coast of Zanguebar, and is inhabited by a cruel people called Gallas. The prince is a Mahometan, but many of his subjects are idolaters, and of the worst sort, for they offer human sacrifices.

Monoemugi Proper is bounded on the east by Congo, on the west by Tranquebar, on the north by Monomotapa, and on the south by Makoko. This is the largest division of the whole, but not otherwise remarkable, except from its being the residence of the emperor.

The chief productions of this country, exclusive of the respective mines of gold, silver, and copper, are palm-wine and oil. Honey is here so plentiful, that the Negroes cannot consume one third of it, so that they suffer the rest to be lost.

The natives dress in silks and cottons, which they buy of strangers, and wear collars of transparent beads brought from Camboya. These beads serve also instead of money, gold and silver being so common that it is considered by them as of no value. They are most of them idolaters, and in their dispositions refractory and cruel.

C H A P. VI.

Z A N G U E B A R.

THIS country received its name from the Arabs, the word Zangue, in their language, signifying black, all the inhabitants being of that colour. It is bounded on the east by the Indian Ocean, on the west by Monoemugi, on the north by Anian, and on the south by the river Cuama, which separates it from Monomotapa. It is very disproportionate in its extent, being 1400 miles in length, and not more than 350 in the broadest part.

The coast is very extensive, and in the course of it has many rivers and islands. This part of the country is best known to the Europeans, owing to the conquests made here by the Portuguese. The inland parts consist of a large, barren, and unhealthy track, the lands lying low, and intersected by rivers, lakes, thick woods, forests, and marshy grounds. Most of the inhabitants are Arabs, being the descendants of those who were banished here from their own country, on account of their adherence to the sect of Ali, of which they are still zealous professors.

The principal river of this country is that called Kilmanzi, or Quilmanca, the latter of which name was given it by the Portuguese, from a fort and town so called, built by them at the mouth of it.

The continental part of Zanguebar is divided into two kingdoms, Mosambique and Melinda.

Mosambique is divided into several provinces and lordships, each of which has a peculiar dialect to itself. The climate is sultry and unwholesome, but the soil is fertile, producing plenty of millet, rice, and several sorts of pulse; as also abundance of orange and lemon trees. It abounds likewise with wild beasts, particularly bears and elephants, the latter of which are so numerous, that the inhabitants are obliged to kindle fires round the fields to prevent them from devouring the corn: nor dare they go abroad at night without carrying lighted torches in their hands to frighten them away.

The inhabitants of Mosambique are of low stature, very black, and have short curled hair. They are naturally cruel and deceitful.

Their towns are very small, and the buildings low and despicable. Their common food is the flesh of elephants, with bread made of millet and rice; from the latter of which they also make a kind of beer.

The chief wealth of these people consists in gold, ebony, ivory, and slaves, all of which they sell to the Portuguese only; for they will not suffer any other foreigners to enter their country.

With respect to their religion, some of them are Christians, and others Mahometans; but the principal part are idolaters, and use all those superstitions and ridiculous customs, practised in other idolatrous countries.

There are two small districts adjoining to the kingdom of Mosambique, called Mongalo and Angos: the

former is situated near the mouth of the river Cuama, and is chiefly inhabited by Arabs: the other is also situated on a bank of the same river, about 160 miles from the former. Both these places are fruitful, producing abundance of rice and millet; as also great quantities of cattle. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, but intermixed with Negroes, who are idolaters, and remarkable for the lowness of their stature. They have no covering to the upper part of their bodies, but round their waists they wrap pieces of cotton or silk. Some of the better sort wear a turban on their heads.

The people of both these places carry on a commerce with the inhabitants of Monomotapa in gold, elephants teeth, gums, &c.

Melinda is situated partly under the equinoctial line, and partly on both sides of it; for its southern boundaries lie under the 2d degree, and 30th minute, south latitude, and its northern extremity extends to the river Quilmanzi.

As this kingdom is well watered by rivers, the soil is in general fertile, and produces great abundance of the principal necessities of life. It abounds also with a variety of fruit-trees, particularly orange, palm, and citron, the latter of which constantly perfume the air with an odoriferous scent.

The inhabitants of this kingdom greatly differ in their complexions, some of them being quite black, some of an olive-colour, and others almost white, particularly the women. The common people wear only a loose piece of cloth about their waists, but the better sort have a garment made of cotton or silk, which reaches from the waist to the knees, and on their heads they wear a turban. The ladies of quality always appear in silk, and ornament their necks and arms; the former with strings of gold, and the latter with bracelets made of the same metal.

The city of Melinda, the capital of the kingdom, is situated on a very agreeable plain, and contains a great number of houses, most of which are well built with free-stone. It is the residence of the king, and in it are a great number of rich merchants, who trade with the Indians of Camboya in gold, ivory, copper, quicksilver, and all sorts of stuffs. The Portuguese are so numerous in this city, that they have built several handsome churches and chapels in it; and before one of the churches they have also erected a stately cross of gilt marble.

The king's palace is a very spacious edifice, built of stone, and neatly ornamented.

Whenever the king goes abroad he is carried in a sedan, on the shoulders of four of the greatest men in his kingdom, and incense and other perfumes are burned before him as he passes along the streets. At every town he enters, he is always met by a number of beautiful women, some of whom present him with flowers, and

and others go before him scattering various kinds of perfumes.

The laws of this country are but few, and those wholly vested in the power of the king. If any one is found guilty of murder, he is immediately punished with death: but thefts and trifling offences are punished only by fine. If any of the king's grantees are detected in having imposed falsities on him, they are either sentenced to pay a fine, or to receive a number of blows from the king's own hand, more or less, according to the greatness of the offence. In the latter case, the method of inflicting the punishment is thus: they strip the criminal naked, and lay him on the ground, in the apartment of the palace assigned for that purpose. The

king then gives him a number of blows on his back and breech, with a kind of whip, made with two long pieces of leather fastened to a stick. As soon as the king thinks he has sufficiently scourged him, he desists, when the criminal rises, puts on his cloaths, kisses the king's feet, and thanks him in the most respectful and submissive manner.

The weapons used by the people of this kingdom are bows, arrows, darts, and shields.

Some of these people are Mahometans, but the principal part are idolaters. The Portuguese have made but few proselytes in this kingdom, the people being obstinate in preserving their own religious principles.

C H A P. VII.

B R A V A

BRAVA, the only republican state on the whole coast of Africa, is pleasantly situated on the coast of the same name, being bounded on each side by a river, supposed to be two branches of the great river Quilmanca. Its extent inland is very trifling; and the chief thing that renders it remarkable is its capital, which is called Brava, and situated in the first degree of north latitude, between the two rivers above-mentioned, where it has a tolerable good harbour. It is a large city, and, with the whole republic, was founded by seven Arabian brethren, who fled hither to avoid the impending danger that threatened them from the tyranny of their king, one of the petty monarchs of Arabia Felix.

The city is surrounded by strong walls, and otherwise well fortified. The houses are very spacious, and built after the Moreisco stile. They are chiefly inhabited by rich merchants, whose principal traffic consists in gold, silver, cotton and other cloths, elephants teeth, gums and other drugs, particularly ambergris, with which this coast abounds.

The government of this republic is aristocratical, the inhabitants having a right to chuse twelve chiefs from amongst the most ancient families, whom they trust with the management of all affairs, and the administration of justice.

The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, but subject to the king of Portugal, to whom they pay an annual acknowledgement.

The manner in which this republic became tributary to the Portuguese is thus related: Tristran de Cugna, admiral of the Portuguese fleet, having set on shore at Melinda three ambassadors, sent by king Emanuel to the emperor of Abyssinia, and recommended them to the care and protection of the king of it, continued his course northward along the coast, till he came to the city of Brava, where he cast anchor at the port. Here he dispatched, according to the Portuguese custom, one of his officers, named Lionel Codigo, to wait on the heads of the republic, and offer them peace, and the friendship and alliance of the king his master. To this the chiefs answered, that they had no objection to enter into such a treaty: but this answer was only a piece of dissimulation, and calculated to detain the fleet to its destruction, the season being then near at hand when such boisterous winds usually blow in these parts, as would dash in pieces all their ships, even in the very harbour.

Cugna, having discovered this artifice, resolved immediately to assault the city. Accordingly, before day-break, he drew up his men on the shore, and formed them into two lines, the first whereof consisted

of 600, the command of which he gave to Alphonso Albuquerque, whilst he reserved to himself the command of the others, which consisted of 600 soldiers.

Brava was at this time garrisoned by 4000 men, half of whom immediately sallied out against them. The conflict was severe on both sides; but the Portuguese charged them with such fury, that they found themselves obliged to give ground, and made a very regular retreat into the city; after which they shut all the gates, to prevent the enemy from following them.

The Portuguese immediately surrounded the place, examining, with the utmost diligence, where they could best force an entrance; but were all that time terribly annoyed from within, by burning torches and other missile weapons.

In the mean time Albuquerque, having discovered a weak part in the wall, began his attack there, but was quickly opposed by the besieged, who flocked thither with all speed, and defended it with surprising intrepidity. The contest was kept up with great fury on both sides, when, luckily for Albuquerque, the admiral came up, at whose approach the Moors were struck with such a panic, that they fled with the greatest precipitation; whilst the Portuguese soldiers, eager for their prey, would have pursued them into the city, but were restrained by their commanders.

The city, however, was soon after entered, and plundered of a very large and valuable booty, which the Portuguese immediately carried on board their ships. Great numbers of the besieged were slain and wounded, and many of them taken prisoners; but most of these were soon after released. The Portuguese had about 50 of their men killed, and many dangerously wounded, besides 18 others who perished in the long boat, which, through their insatiable avarice, they had loaded so immoderately, as to occasion it to overset. Such, indeed, was the inhumanity of the Portuguese soldiers and sailors, and such their thirst after spoil, that they cut off the arms of seven women, to come the more readily at their rings and bracelets; but Cugna having severely punished the perpetrators of this cruelty, thereby deterred the rest from the like barbarity.

After the city was plundered, Cugna ordered it to be set on fire; and it was soon reduced to ashes in sight of the inhabitants, who stood at a small distance beholding the dismal spectacle. From this catastrophe they were forced to become tributary to their conquerors; for the Portuguese would not permit them to rebuild their city, or enjoy their ancient privileges, on any other condition than that of paying the king of Portugal an annual acknowledgement, which they have continued to do from that time to the present.

C H A P. VIII.

KINGDOM OF MAGADOXA, OR MAGADOSKA.

THIS kingdom is situated on the coast of Ajan, and is of considerable extent, reaching from 5 deg. 40 min. of north lat. to the equinox, where the river or gulph of Jubo separates the coast of Ajan from that of Zanguebar. It is bounded on the east by the ocean, on the west by the kingdom of Alaba, on the north by the kingdom of Adel, and on the south by the territories of Brava. It receives its name from its capital, situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, which river is called by the Arabs, the Nile of Magadox, by reason of its annual overflowing like that of Egypt.

Besides this river, the country is well watered by a number of canals that are cut from it; so that the soil is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of several kinds of grain, as also a variety of excellent fruits. It likewise affords good pasturage, for which reason the natives breed great quantities of cattle, particularly oxen and sheep. They have also numbers of horses; and in the inland parts are various kinds of wild animals, particularly monkeys, baboons, and apes. The rivers also produce several sorts of fish, which the inhabitants catch without any fear, as they are not, as in most other parts of Africa, infested with crocodiles, or any other dangerous animals.

The inhabitants greatly differ in their complexion, some of them being quite black, others of a tawny colour, and some almost white. They are very robust, and of a courageous and warlike disposition. Their weapons are darts and lances, as also bows and arrows, the latter of which are infected with a poisonous quality.

The city of Magadox is tolerably large, and well inhabited. It is resorted to by great numbers of merchants from the kingdoms of Adel, Camboya, and other parts, who bring here stuffs of various sorts, as also drugs and spices; in exchange for which they receive of the inhabitants gold, ivory, wax, and other commodities.

The king and his court are all Mahometans, as are also the chief of the inhabitants of the city; but those in the interior parts of the country are all idolaters, and strictly adhere to their heathenish superstitions.

With respect to the historical part of this kingdom, we have only to observe, that an hostile attempt was

made on its capital by the Portuguese fleet under the command of Admiral Tristan de Cugna, who, as before mentioned, reduced the city of Brava to ashes; the circumstances attending which were as follow.

Cugna having reduced that place, proceeded as far as the city of Magadox, which he caused to be summoned, as usual, to accept of peace of friendship, or, in plainer terms, of subjection and tribute to Portugal: but here he found the inhabitants ready prepared to give him a suitable reception: great numbers of foot were patrolling along the shore, the walls were covered with armed men, and a considerable body of troops were drawn up before the town, which made Codigo, the officer sent with the summons, afraid of going on shore; therefore he dispatched one of the Bravan captives to assure the Magadoxans that the Portuguese came not to denounce war, but to offer peace to them. They, however, knowing what dreadful execution had been made at the city of Brava, fell furiously upon the messenger, and tore him in pieces. They also threatened to serve Codigo in the same manner, if he offered to land, which obliged him to return to his admiral, and acquaint him with the ill success he had met with, and the insolent menaces of the enemy.

Upon this information, the admiral was so enraged, that he determined to bombard and storm the place, but was happily diverted from his design by the persuasion of his officers and pilots. The former represented to him the natural strength of the place, the number of the garrison, the great plenty of ammunition, and the valour and resolution of the inhabitants. The latter pointed out the extreme danger that must unavoidably arise to the ships, both from the fire of the town, and the violence of the sea, especially as winter was then coming on, and the season for sailing nearly expired; so that if his troops should miscarry in their attempt against the place, their fleet and army must inevitably perish. From these reasonable observations Cugna immediately relinquished all thoughts of attempting the design he had so precipitately formed, and immediately gave orders for sailing to the Island of Socotora, where he soon after arrived with all his ships, leaving the brave Magadoxans in the peaceable enjoyment of their own possessions.

C H A P. IX.

KINGDOM OF ADEL, OR ZEILA.

ADEL, or Zeila, as it is called from its capital city, is bounded on the north by the Straits of Babel-Mandel, on the east by the Eastern or Indian Ocean, on the south by Magadox, and on the west by the kingdom of Bali. The soil round the city of Zeila is barren, and the inhabitants labour under a dearth of water. At some distance from the city the country is fertile, and produces plenty both of grain and fruit. They have also cattle in abundance. The other parts of the kingdom being flat, they have rain but seldom, but that defect is supplied by the rivers that run through it.

The natives along the coast, as far as Barbora, are tawny, but farther to the south they are jet black.

They wear cotton garments in general, from the waist downwards, and have the rest of their bodies bare; but those of superior rank have callico gowns, which cover their whole bodies, and are distinguished by wearing caps on their heads.

The Adelites are brave and warlike, but being unacquainted with the art of making weapons, they are furnished with them by the Turks and Arabs, who receive in exchange the slaves and spoils they get from the enemy.

The country around the city of Barbora is fertile, and produces various kinds of grain, fruit, and cattle.

The articles of traffic here are gold dust, elephants teeth, frankincense, and slaves.

C H A P. X.

G U I N E A.

GEOPHAPHERS divide this vast space into two parts, namely, Upper Guinea, or Guinea Proper, and Lower Guinea, distinguished by the name of Congo. We shall treat of them in that order.

Upper Guinea, or Guinea Proper, is bounded on the north by Negroland, on the east by the unknown parts of Africa, and on the south and west by Congo and the Atlantic Ocean. It is in length computed at 1800 miles, and in breadth at 360. The coast of Guinea is much frequented by Europeans, who usually divide it into the Slave, the Gold, the Ivory, and the Grain Coast.

The Europeans gave these names to the respective parts from the chief commodities they afford. For instance, the Slave Coast is thus named from its furnishing a greater number of slaves than any other country; the Gold Coast from the great quantity of that metal found there; the Ivory Coast from the cargoes of elephants teeth brought from thence by the Europeans; and the Grain Coast from the Guinea pepper, which grows there in abundance.

SECTION I.

THE SLAVE COAST.

THIS part of Guinea is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Benin; on the west by the Gold Coast; on the north by Biafara, with the Desert of Seth; and on the south by the Atlantic Ocean. It comprehends the kingdoms of Coto, Popo, Whidah, and Ardrah. The two first, in comparison with the two last, are very inconsiderable: a particular description, therefore, of the customs, manners, &c. of the inhabitants, will be given under the respective heads of Whidah and Ardrah, which form the principal parts of the Slave Coast.

The kingdom of Coto (by some called the Land of Lampi) begins at the river Volta, and extends eastward to Little Popo, a distance of about 50 miles. It is a flat, sandy, and barren country; and the only trees to be found in it are the palm and wild cocoa. The town or village of Coto, otherwise called Verbon, is about fourteen miles from the river Volta, and was formerly the residence of the king. The inhabitants of Coto are poor and illiterate, and their chief traffic consists in slaves, whom they steal from the inland countries, and sell to the Europeans.

The kingdom of Popo extends about 30 miles, and is divided into two parts, by the names of Great and Little Popo. The last is so remarkably sandy, and so barren, that the inhabitants are supplied with all their provisions from Whidah. They chiefly live by plunder and stealing slaves, in both which they exceed their neighbours of Coto, being of a more courageous and warlike disposition. They are also great cheats, and frequently take in the Europeans by deluding them on shore in expectation of slaves, at a time when they have not one to dispose of, when they not only fleece them, but sometimes detain them for several months before they procure the number wanted, and then take the advantage by fixing on them an exorbitant price.

The town of Little Popo is situated on the shore, about ten miles from Coto. It is a poor, miserable place, and consists only of a number of straggling huts, inhabited by people whose lives are chiefly spent in concerting measures for the destruction of their fellow-creatures.

In the inland parts of Great Popo are plenty of various kinds of fruit, as also cattle and poultry. The

town stands on an island formed by marshes, and is divided into three parts, each distinct from the other. It is the residence of the king, whose palace is very large, consisting of a number of huts, enclosed by lofty trees. The king has a great number of concubines, two of whom constantly stand by him with fans to cool and refresh him. He is very fond of tobacco, and spends the principal part of his time in smoking and conversing with his concubines. His dress consists only of a long gown of brocade, with an osier cap on his head, and sandals on his feet.

The town of Great Popo is the only place in the kingdom that merits the least notice, the rest being only small hamlets of five or six insignificant buildings, whose inhabitants, on the least apprehension of danger, immediately retire to Great Popo.

The blacks of this kingdom are addicted, in general, to plunder and rapine. They carry on some trade in slaves, but their chief advantages arise from the fish caught in the rivers.

KINGDOM OF WHIDAH.

Extent. Boundaries. Rivers. Soil. Divisions, Vegetable and Animal.

THIS kingdom extends from Popo about 10 leagues along the shore, and in the middle reaches six or seven inland; after which it divides itself like two arms, being in some places 30 or 40 miles broad, and in others much more. It is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Ardrah, on the west by the river Volta, on the north by the country of Dahomy, and on the south by the Gulph of Guinea. It is a fine, fertile country, being watered by two excellent rivers, called Jakin and Euphrates, both of which take their rise in the kingdom of Ardrah. At the mouth of the last river is the road where the ships ride, but the landing is exceeding dangerous on account of the prodigious swell of the sea, particularly in the months of April, May, and July.

These rivers greatly contribute to the fertility of the country. The coast part is ornamented with a variety of lofty and beautiful trees, which are planted in such order as to form the most agreeable retreats. From the coast the country rises with a fine easy ascent for the space of 50 miles, commanding, in most parts of it, a fine prospect of the sea. The fields are every where cultivated; and, instead of hedges, or other fences, are divided by beautiful groves of trees. In short, the whole country appears as one continued garden, and its beauties may be much easier conceived than described.

The kingdom of Whidah is divided into twenty six provinces or governments. The king is at the head of these, and has the government of the province of Xavier, so called from the capital of the kingdom. Each of these provinces has several small villages or hamlets that are subordinate to it: so that the whole kingdom appears to be one large and populous town, divided into different parts, by gardens, lawns, and groves.

So fertile is the soil of this country, that as soon as one harvest is over, the ground is sown with some other grain; so that they have two, and sometimes three crops a year. They plough their land in ridges, by which means the dews falling in the hollows, and the sun heating the sides, whatever is planted soon comes to perfection. The grain consists of rice, millet, and maize, or Turkey corn. The Negroes are so industrious, that they will not suffer any spot of ground to lie uncultivated: even the enclosures of their houses and villages are planted with melons and other fruits, and instead

instead of highways, they have only small paths that lead through the fields from one village to another.

Here are oranges, lemons, bananas, ananas, pine-apples, water-melons, citrons, and tamarinds. There are also prodigious numbers of palm-trees, but they are chiefly cultivated by the natives for the sake of the oil, being so little fond of the wine, that few of them take the trouble to draw it.

The roots produced are cabbages, carrots, turnips, radishes, parsley, and various kinds of sallads, all of them little inferior in quality to those of Europe. They have also peas, and plenty of other vegetables.

About Whidah they are seldom troubled with wild beasts; but in the more inland parts there are elephants, buffalos, and tygers; and a greater plenty of all sorts of apes and monkeys than in any other part of Guinea. There are also many deers and hares, the latter of which are much like those of Europe.

The tame beasts are oxen, cows, goats, sheep, and hogs, all of which are large and well tasted. The hogs, in particular, are exceeding large, and the flesh as white and sweet as those of England. This, indeed, is little to be wondered at; for the poorer sort of Negroes pay more regard to their hogs than to themselves, and feed them much better.

They have plenty of poultry, as cocks and hens, geese, ducks, and turkies; besides great plenty of wild fowl, as partridges, pheasants, thrushes, pintados, wild duck, teal, woodcocks, ortolans, and ring-doves. There are also many parrots, which are chiefly grey, with some red feathers on the head, and the tips of their wings and tails.

Here are several other sorts of birds, whose peculiarities merit particular attention. The first of these is the kurbalot, or fisher: it is a small bird, about the size of a sparrow, and its plumage is beautifully variegated: the bill, which is as long as the body, is very strong and sharp, and is furnished on the inside with small teeth, not unlike those of a saw. They build in high trees by the sides of the rivers, and their nests are composed of earth mixed with feathers and moss. They make their nests at the extremity of the most slender branches, where they hang by a reed or straw about a foot long: they are of an oval form, and are entered by a projection at the top that bends a little, so that the inside is perfectly secure from the weather. These birds not only fly in the air, but skim on the surface of the water with prodigious swiftness. They are exceeding numerous, and breed so fast, that sometimes a dozen nests are found on the same tree.

The aigret is a bird of the heron kind, but is remarkable for the colour of its legs and feet, which are of a deep red. The body is about the size of a goose, and the feathers are of a darkish colour, intermixed with white: the neck is long, but the tail remarkably short: the bill, near the head, is of a blueish colour, but towards the point it is black. They are little used by the Negroes, their flesh being ill tasted.

The bustard here is about the size of the Guinea hen, and the flesh of it exceeding good. The bill is of a whitish colour, and much longer than those of Europe. The eyes are large, the iris hazle-coloured, and the eye-lids of an ash colour. The sides of the head, all round the eyes, are of a bright brown; but the top of the head, and the whole neck, are covered with black feathers, hanging a little loose, with narrow points. The back, rump, and tail, are of a bright brown; and the feathers on the latter have transverse black bars. The quills, or greater wing feathers nearest the back, are brownish, with black spots; and the middle quills white, with transverse bars of black. The legs are long, and the toes short in proportion, being void of feathers some way above the knees. The toes are only three, all standing forward, and they are covered with scales of a white colour, but the claws are dusky.

The bird called the Numidian Damsel is very delicate in its construction. The body is long and taper, as are also the legs. The feathers on the upper part of the

wings and back are of a light colour; but the tail, which is long and ragged, is black. The sides of the head are white, and from the top of it behind hangs a long tuft, which reaches for several inches down the back of the neck. It is a bird much esteemed among the Blacks, the flesh of it being firm and well tasted.

The rivers here produce great plenty of various kinds of fish, which are caught by the natives with lines; they being strangers to the use of nets. Among the fish caught here is a remarkable one, called by the natives the ape or monkey fish. The flesh is tolerably good, and greatly resembles lean beef in its taste. It is a lively fish, and swims very swift. When he appears first on the surface of the water, before he takes the hook, his motions are truly diverting: he comes gently near it, looks at it, tastes it with the edge of his lips, and then quits it. After several evolutions, he at length swallows it, and, when he is entangled, he throws himself into such postures, as to afford a most laughable scene to the spectators.

Here are great numbers of snakes, or serpents, but they are chiefly of two sorts. The first of these are black and poisonous; but the other is quite harmless, and worshipped by the natives. The poisonous sort are about twelve feet long, and three inches in diameter. They have a flat head, with two large crooked teeth, and always creep with their heads erect and their mouths open, and attack their prey with great eagerness.

The fetish snake has a large round head, with beautiful eyes: the tongue is short, pointed like a dart, and their motion is exceeding slow: their tail is slender and sharp, and the skin very beautiful, the ground of it being white, with waved streaks or spots of yellow and brown, agreeably intermixed. They are so gentle, that they will not hurt any creature except the venomous serpents, to whom they have the greatest enmity, and seem to take pleasure in destroying them. Both Negroes and Whites handle and play with them without the least danger.

These snakes are held in so sacred a light by the Blacks, that should either a Negro or a white man kill one of them, whether on purpose or by accident, his life would pay for it. Of this the following tragical instance is recited by a late writer: "When the English first settled in Whidah, a captain of that country having landed and housed his cargo, his men one night found a snake in the lodge, which not thinking any harm, they immediately killed, and threw out before the door. The Blacks next morning seeing the dead snake, and the English as innocently owning they had killed it, the natives massacred all that were in the lodge, set fire to it, and destroyed all the goods." The English, deterred by this cruelty, discontinued from going to trade there for some time; but at length some of them again venturing, on their arrival, the Negroes shewed them some of these snakes, and desired they would not hurt them, by reason they were sacred. This request the English readily obeyed, and no material accidents have happened to them ever since.

If a white man should happen by chance to kill one of these serpents, the only means to secure him are to fly immediately to the king, and satisfy him that it was not done designedly; in which case, and a handsome present made to the priests, he may probably escape the rage of the populace; but even then his situation is very dangerous.

Before we quit this subject we shall take notice of a whimsical story relative of one of these snakes, as mentioned by an Englishman who some time resided on the spot. "A snake (says he) once placed himself over the table where I always dined, and though he might be easily touched, yet no person could be found who would venture to take him away. However, I was afterwards well paid for his lodging; for some of the great men of Whidah dining with me one day, happening to talk about the snakes, I glanced my eye to that which was over their heads, and told them, that not having eaten any thing for fourteen days he must certainly at

last die with hunger if he did not speedily remove his quarters. My guests answered, that although I was not aware of it, the snake undoubtedly had part of my victuals out of the dishes, which he knew how to come at. I took the hint, and next day told the king, in presence of the same persons, that one of his fetishes had made bold, uninvited, to eat at my table for fourteen days; adding, that I thought it was but reasonable that I should be paid for his board, otherwise I should be obliged to discharge from my house this bold intruder. The king, who was always diverted with such sort of discourse, desired me to let the snake remain where it was, and promised to provide both for him and me, which he accordingly did, by sending me a fine fat ox the same evening."

The same writer says, "If a fire breaks out, in which one of these snakes happens to be burnt, all that hear of it stop their ears, and give money to reconcile them to the consumed fetish, of whom they have been so careless; since they believe he will quickly return, and revenge himself on those who have been the occasion of his death."

Persons, Drefs, Manners, Customs, &c. of the Negroes of Whidah.

THE Negroes of Whidah of both sexes are generally tall, lusty and well proportioned. Their drefs consists of three or four ells of a stuff called Paen, which is wrapped round the waist, and then descends to the middle of the leg. The women wear a silk garment, with two or three rows of fringes, the bottom of it covering the feet. Sometimes they wrap themselves round with a piece of the beforementioned stuff Paen, and bring part of it over the head and round the shoulders like a mantle. The better sort of the men are distinguished by their hats, which they purchase of the Europeans; the larger they are the better they like them, and are particularly proud of them after they are old and rusty; others have bonnets made of deer or dogs skins. They wear strings of pearls or coral on their necks, and have bracelets of the same materials on their arms and wrists.

In general they are very illiterate. When two persons of equal condition meet in the morning, they both fall down on their knees, clap their hands, then rise, and mutually salute, by wishing each other a good day. They pay particular respect to their superiors, for when they chance to meet these they immediately fall on their knees, and kiss the earth thrice, clapping their hands, and congratulating them by wishing them a good day or night, which the superior returns by gently clapping his hands together, but without altering his posture; all which time the inferior continues on the ground till the other departs. The same kind of ceremonies are also used by the younger to the elder brother, the children to the father, and the wives to their husbands.

The Whidah blacks are cleanly and assiduous in business; nor will they ever leave any work they undertake till it is thoroughly compleated. Besides agriculture, the men make calabashes, wooden utensils, hardware, and several other things, which they execute with great neatness. The women are employed in spinning and in planting and sowing their corn, yams, potatoes, &c. The Whidah cloth is about two yards long, and about a quarter of a yard broad. It is of various colours, but those most in use are either white or blue.

Those that are wealthy, besides husbandry, in which their wives and slaves are employed under them, drive on a very considerable trade, not only in slaves, but in many other commodities.

They are most artful thieves, and greatly addicted to gaming. When they have lost their money and other property, they will play for their wives and children; and when they have lost them stake their own liberty, and thus become slaves to their countrymen, who sometimes sell them to the Europeans.

Polygamy is universally prevalent here. It is no uncommon thing for a poor man to have forty or fifty wives; a chief or grandee three or four hundred; and a king as many thousands. These wives, however, may be considered only as so many slaves, and, indeed, the principal part of those belonging to the great are probably captives that happen to please their masters, who therefore rather chuse to keep them, than sell them to the Europeans.

Their marriage ceremonies are very concise. When a man fancies a young woman, he applies to her father, and desires her for his wife, which is seldom refused. He then presents her with a fine pagne, or garment, as also necklaces and bracelets; after which he provides a grand entertainment, which concludes the ceremony. If a slave is inclined to marry a girl who is the slave of another he asks her of her master without applying to her parents. The boys of this marriage belong to the master of the wife.

The women here cannot be considered in any other light than as slaves. They are in general obliged to till the ground for their husbands; and even the favourites, who are kept at home, are not exempt from labour; besides which they are obliged constantly to attend on their husbands, and behave to them with the greatest submission.

The prodigious number of slaves to be had here can be no cause for wonder; for, from the multiplicity of wives each man has a great number of children must reasonably be expected. It is no uncommon thing to see fathers who have two hundred children living at the same time: and it often happens that a man has half a dozen children born in a day, for they never cohabit with their wives while pregnant, which, indeed, is the only reason that can be given for their being permitted to take so many. A man's principal wealth consists in the number of his children, whom he can dispose of at pleasure, except his eldest son. On the death of the father the eldest son inherits not only all his goods and cattle, but his wives, which he immediately holds and retains as his own, except his mother, for whom, in case she desires it, he provides a separate subsistence and apartment. This custom not only prevails among the common sort of people, but also the king and grandees.

The Whidah blacks are equally fond of dancing and music.

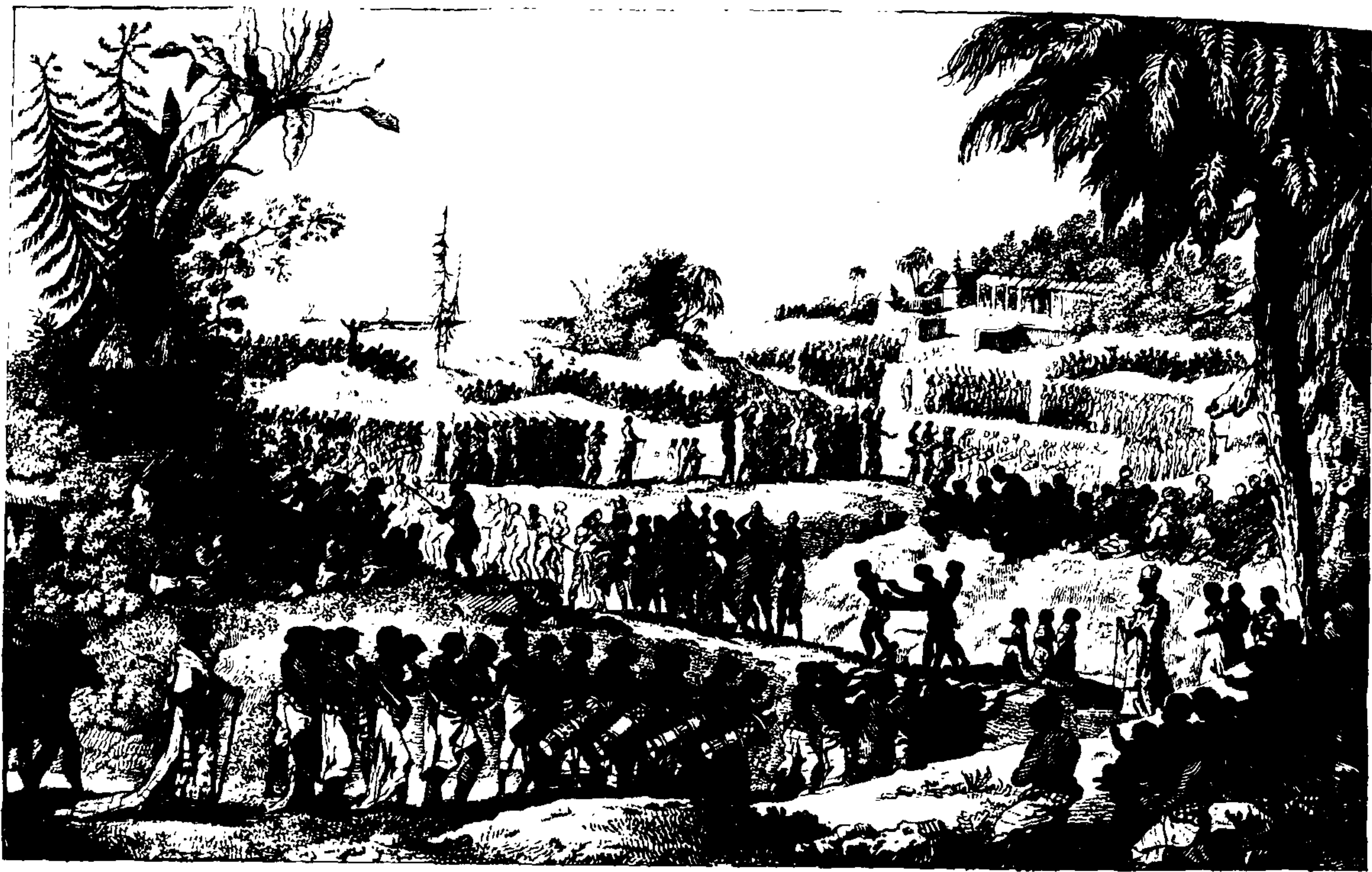
Circumcision is practised here, but the time of performing the operation is uncertain, some doing it at the most infant state, and others not till the children are five or six years old.

They are subject to several diseases, particularly malignant fevers, and the flesh worms. These worms are of different sizes: in general they run about a foot in length, and are not thicker than a hair. They breed between the flesh and the skin, where they extend themselves till they force a passage, and not only men and women, but cattle are subject to this disorder. Various conjectures have been formed relative to the causes of these worms, but the most reasonable opinion is, that of the unwholesomeness of the water generally taken out of pools or ponds. They cause excruciating pain, and disclose themselves sometimes by cold shiverings and sometimes by burning heat. In some they are attended with a large swelling, in others with carbuncles and ulcers. The negroes use no remedy for them, but let them come out freely, and afterwards treat the part either by washing it with salt water or anointing it with fresh butter intermixed with salt. A late writer, speaking on this head, says, "The pain of these worms is so excessive, that a man would for ever renounce all the profit of trading on this coast rather than endure it."

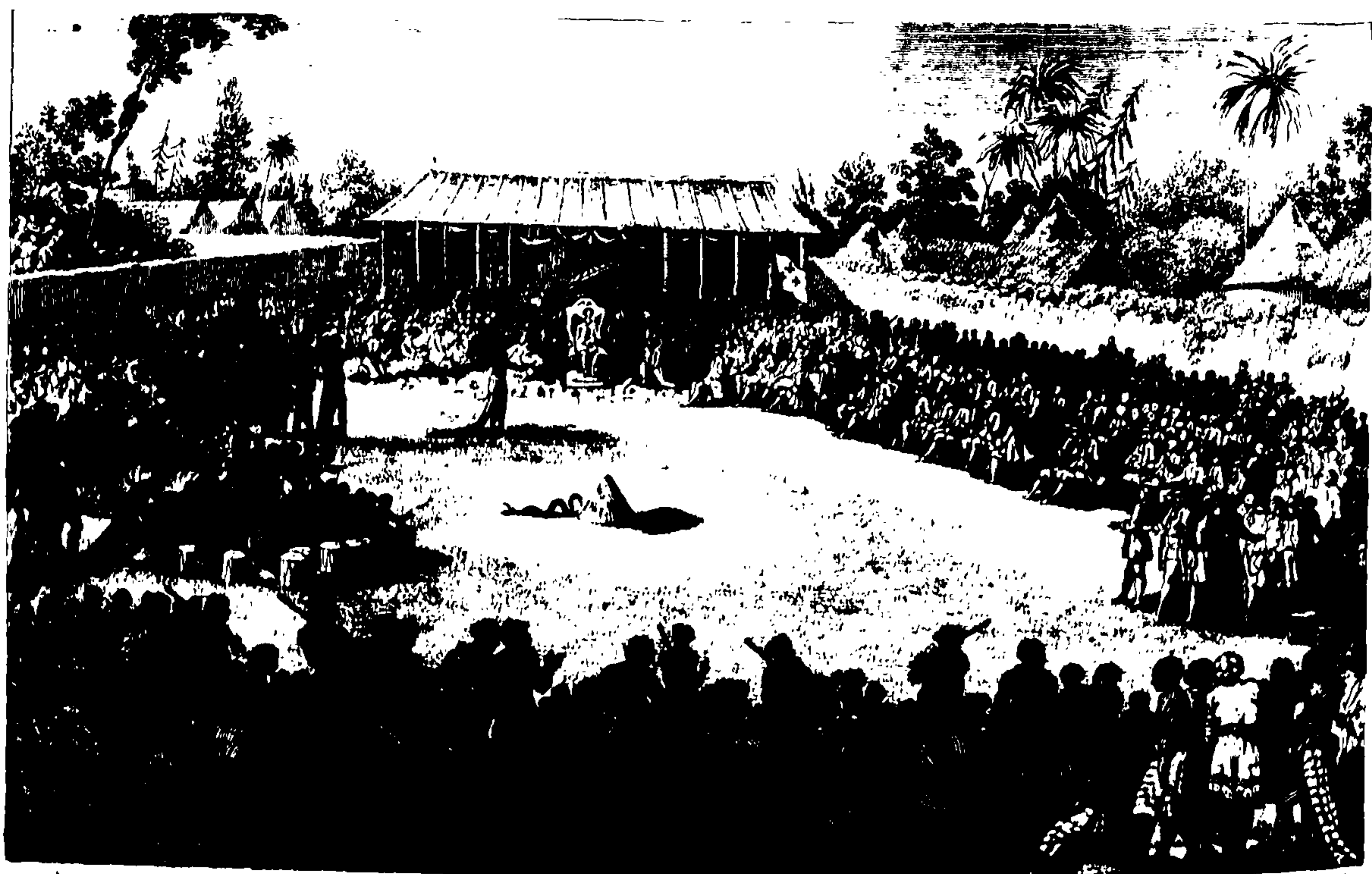
Their fevers are most prevalent in the months of June, July and August. The worst and most difficult disorder to cure is the dysentery, which attacks strangers at all seasons of the year. It commonly arises from eating the country fruits to excess, or making themselves too free with spirituous liquors.

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Procession of the People of WHIDAH, to present offerings to the Grand Snake.



Ceremonies used at the Coronation of the KING of WHIDAH, on the Slave Coast.

The people here are greatly alarmed in case of sickness; and the mention of death has such an effect on them, that it frequently facilitates their illness. It is a capital crime to speak of it before the king, or any great man.

The fetishes, or objects of religious worship among the Whidah Negroes, are four in number, viz. the snake, or serpent, which is the principal; the trees; the sea; and Agoye, or the god of counsels.

The snakes are kept in fetish or religious houses, built for that purpose in groves; and to these the people sacrifice hogs, sheep, fowls, goats, &c. The principal snake-house, or cathedral, is situated about seven miles from the king's village, and is built under a beautiful and lofty tree. It is called the Grand Snake, being the largest of them all, and is chiefly worshipped by the king and great men. The offerings made to this snake are very considerable, consisting not only of various kinds of provisions, but also money, pieces of silk or stuff, and all sorts of European and African commodities. These offerings are presented to the priest, or grand sacrificer, who reconciles the disposal of them with the idol in such a manner, as to enhance his own emolument.

An annual pilgrimage is made to the grand snake by all the nobility and great men of the kingdom, when the richest offerings, and most valuable presents, are bestowed. The grand master of the king's household also goes once a year in the king's name, and offers presents to the snake for the preservation of the government. But the greatest piece of devotion paid to this idol, is the solemn procession made after the coronation of a new king, the particulars of which are thus related by the Chevalier de Marchais, which we have carefully translated into English.

"As soon as notice is given of these processions, the crowds are so great from all parts of the kingdom, that it would be impossible to pass, if care was not taken to range them in order on each side. For this end a great number of officers, with large rods or switches in their hands, go foremost, to keep order and make way. These oblige the people, gathered near the temple gate, to sit on their heels, and keep silence. Next follow 40 of the musketeers, four and four, with their captain at their head: then the king's trumpet-major, with 20 trumpets; and after him the drum-major, with as many drums, beating as loud as they can: next the chief player on the flutes, with 20 musicians on the same instrument. These three bands are the king's chamber music, and sometimes play separately, sometimes together. Twelve of the king's wives, two and two, carrying the king's presents to the serpent, which consists of bujis, brandy, linen, callico, and silk. The king's valet-de-chambre alone, with a cane in his hand, bare-headed, and clothed like the grandees, his pagne trailing on the ground. Twenty-one trumpets, three and three. Forty soldiers with muskets, four and four. Twenty drums, two and two. Twenty flutes, ditto. Twelve of the king's wives of the third class, with large baskets of reeds on their heads, with victuals for the serpent from the king. Three of the king's dwarfs richly dressed, and long pagnes trailing behind them, which makes them look lops. The grand master of the ceremonies, bare-headed, his cane in his hand, dressed like the grandees. Forty musketeers, four and four. Twenty drums. Twenty trumpets. Twenty flutes. Twelve of the king's wives, carrying the queen-mother's presents to the serpent. Three valets of the queen-mother carrying her arm chair; the foremost has the back of the chair fastened to his shoulder, the other two carry the feet. Three of the king's dwarfs, dressed like the former. After them comes the queen mother, walking alone, her cane in her hand, magnificently dressed, her pagnes trailing behind, and on her head a reed hat, neatly wrought. Three ladies of the palace richly dressed, but bare-headed. Twelve women trumpets, two and two. Twelve women drums. Twelve women flutes. The grand sacrificer, bare-

headed, his cane in his hand, richly dressed like a grandee. Lastly, a body of 40 musketeers closing the procession, with some officers to keep off the mob.

"As these several bodies arrived at the place of the serpent, without entering the court, they prostrated themselves, with their faces to the earth, at the gate, clapping their hands, throwing dust on their heads, and giving shouts of joy. Mean time the men and women musicians, ranged on each side, made an horrible noise, while the soldiers kept continually firing with their muskets. The king's wives, who carried his presents, and those of the queen mother, waited, ranged in a line in the outer court, till that princess entered, and delivered these presents to the grand sacrificer. In doing this she was assisted by the king's valet-de-chambre, the master of the ceremonies, and the three ladies of the palace, who were the only persons admitted into the temple. It did not appear that this princess was admitted to see the serpent, for that is a favour not even allowed to the king, who is not suffered to enter the first hall, but makes his addresses to the serpent by the mouth of the grand sacrificer, who brings back such answers as he thinks proper. After this the procession returned to Sabi with the same order and ceremony as before."

They invoke the snake, or serpent, on particular occasions, when they think their private fetishes have not sufficient power to protect them. These times are when they are afflicted with drought or rain, famine, or other public calamities. The common people go daily in large bodies to their snake-house, with drums beating and trumpets sounding, where they perform their worship, which consists of certain songs and dances to the honour of their idol, from whom they implore either a propitious journey, fair weather, a good crop, or whatever else they stand most in need of; to obtain which they present their offerings, and then return home.

Their second public fetishes are the trees. These are very lofty; and though they are formed by pure nature, yet they appear as if the greatest art had been bestowed on them. These trees are only prayed to, and presented with offerings in time of sickness, more especially fevers, for the restoration of health. The sacrifices offered them consist of loaves of millet, maize, or rice. These the priest places at the foot of the tree to which the patient is desirous of making his offering. If the latter compliments the former with a pecuniary present, he leaves them to be devoured by the beasts and birds; if not, when the patient is gone, he takes them home, and converts them to his own use.

Their third principal fetish, the sea, they firmly believe (and not without just cause) is able to do as much for them as the snake or the trees. When the weather is so stormy as to hinder trade, the grand sacrificer is consulted, and, according to his answer, a procession is made to the sea, where an ox or sheep is killed on the shore, letting the blood flow into the water, and at the same time throwing a ring into the sea as far as the strength of the arm will reach. The carcase of the beast sacrificed is the property of the priest, who disposes of it in such manner as he thinks proper: sometimes he divides it among the people, but in general he converts it to his own use.

Agoye, their fourth and last public fetish, is an image, made of black earth or clay, and in form somewhat resembles a Negro squatting. It is placed on a kind of pedestal, ornamented with a slip of red cloth bordered with cowries: the head is crowned with lizards and serpents, intermixed with red feathers; and from the top issues the point of an assagaye that goes through a larger lizard, beneath which is a silver crescent. This idol is placed on a table in the house of the grand sacrificer. Before it stand three wooden bowls, or half calabashes, in one of which are a number of small earthen balls. With this idol the people generally advise before they commence any capital undertaking, for which reason he is called the god of councils.

The office of the priesthood is not, as in most other countries, vested in the males exclusively; the females also enjoy it in a superior degree, being wholly exempt from the controul of their husbands, who treat them with the utmost reverence. Girls are trained to the priesthood, under the inspection of an old priestess, from whom they imbibe many absurd principles and maxims, both as to religious tenets, ceremonies, and practices.

The high priest, or grand sacrificer, presides over the rest, who pay him the greatest homage; and even the king himself considers him with equal respect. The priesthood of the grand serpent is peculiar to one family, of which the grand sacrificer is the chief, all the others being subject to and dependent on him. The priests, as well as the priestesses, are easily known by the scars and marks on their bodies, made at the time they are initiated into the religious order. In other respects they differ but little from the laity. They trade like other people, and gather considerable possessions by the sale of cattle and slaves: but their greatest gains arise from the credulity of the people, from whom they extort offerings and presents for the great serpent, which their deluded devotees imagine are religiously bestowed.

Government of Whidah, with the Punishments inflicted on Criminals.

THE civil and military government of Whidah is vested in the king and his principal men: but in criminal cases the king assembles a council, when he opens the indictment, and requires every person to declare his opinion what punishment the offenders deserve, and according to the verdict the punishment is immediately inflicted. Under the king are the several viceroys, whom he appoints at pleasure, and who, in his absence, have an unlimited power. He has also grand captains, who are viceroys over certain districts. Besides these, there are a great number of honorary captains, and another sort that are entrusted with the care of the markets, slaves, prisons, &c.

Murder and adultery are the only capital crimes here. For the first offence the criminal is cut open alive, his entrails taken out and burnt, and his body fixed on a pole erected in the market-place, where it continues for some days, and is then carried to a remote place, to be devoured by birds or beasts of prey.

Adultery is punished no less severely than murder, especially when it is committed with one of the king's wives. If the guilty couple happen to be surpris'd, the king pronounces sentence of death immediately; the manner of executing which, according to a late writer, is thus performed: The king's officers cause two graves or pits to be dug six or seven feet long, four broad, and five deep, so near each other, that the criminals may see and speak together. In the middle of one they plant a stake, to which they fasten the woman, tying her arms behind the post: her legs are also tied at the knees and at the ancles. At the bottom of the other the king's wives lay bundles of small faggots, after which they retire; and two forks of wood being fastened by the officers at the ends, the man, stark naked, is tied to an iron bar, like a broad spit, with iron chains, that he cannot stir, and laid across the two forks. They then set fire to the wood, so that the flames may just reach the body, which is thus roasted by a slow fire. This cruel punishment would be lingering, if they did not take care to turn the criminal so with his face downwards, that the smoke suffocates him before he is quite broiled. When they no longer perceive signs of life, they untie the body, sling it into the pit, and fill it up with earth. When the man is dead, the women issue from the palace, to the number of fifty or sixty, richly dressed as on a festival day. They are guarded by the king's musketeers, accompanied by his drums and flutes. Each carries on her head a large pot of scalding water, which they pour one after another on the head of the female criminal, dead or not dead, and throw the pot after it. This done they loosen the body, take up the

stake, and casting both into the pit, fill it up with earth and stones.

When the wife of a grandee is taken in adultery, the husband is at liberty to use his own discretion, either to put her to death, or sell her as a slave to the Europeans. If he determines on the former, she is strangled or beheaded by the executioner, and the king is sufficiently satisfied on being made acquainted with the fact. The injured husband, however, has not any power over the man that dishonoured him, unless he happens to catch him in the fact, when he has liberty to kill him on the spot. If otherwise, he must apply to the king for justice, who usually sentences the criminal to death. The Chevalier Marchais, who was present at one of these executions, gives the following account of it. "A grandee complained to the king that a private person had debauched his wife. His majesty, upon hearing the witnesses, passed sentence, that the offender should be beaten to death wherever he could be found, and his body exposed for food to the birds and beasts. The officers belonging to the governor of Sabi immediately went in search of him, and found him almost entering his own door, where they soon dispatched him with their clubs, and left the body as the king had ordered. The neighbours went to acquaint the captain of the seraglio, that the body would infect all that quarter before it corrupted, and intreated he would obtain the king's orders to have it taken from thence, or throw it into the sewer, where it could not affect any body. The officer represented their complaint to the king, who replied, 'If I did not punish adultery with severity, no person in my kingdom could be safe. The body shall lie there till it be devoured or rotten. The people shall see it, and learn, at the expence of this wretch, how they invade their neighbour's bed. All I can grant is, that in the day time they may throw a mat over the body, leaving the face uncovered, that the criminal may be known as long as his features can be distinguished.' Not content with this, the king gave to the grandee, whom the deceased had injured, all his effects, with his wives and slaves, to sell or dispose of as he thought proper."

Crimes of a more trifling nature are left to the viceroys, who generally inflict either some kind of penance, or a pecuniary mulct, which is always paid to the king.

Ceremonies used at the Coronation of the Kings of Whidah.

ON the death of a king, the crown descends to the eldest son, unless disapproved by the grandees, who sometimes take upon them to vest it in a younger branch of the family.

The time of the coronation is appointed by the grandees. It is sometimes protracted for months, sometimes for years, but never more than seven. During these intervals the grandees may be said to govern; but the king, in all other instances, is treated with that respect which is due to his rank.

At the time appointed for the coronation, the grandees give intimation of it to the king, who assembles them in the palace, and after the council have deliberated on the measures to be used in executing the ceremony, notice is given of it to the public, by a discharge of cannon, and the news is soon circulated all over the kingdom.

After some previous ceremonies, consisting of offerings made to the grand serpent, and a procession of a number of the king's wives, attended by a party of musqueteers and musicians, to the place of sacrifice, the grandees repair to the palace, dressed in their richest apparel, and attended by their slaves. The king not being present, they enter it without stripping, and after having prostrated themselves before the throne retire. This part of the ceremony continues for fifteen days, during which the king's women make the palace resound with their acclamations; and the public joy is testified by the firing of cannon, and an almost incessant display of rockets from all parts of the town.

At the close of this ceremony, an ambassador is deputed by the grandees of Whidah, to request one of the nobles of Ardrah (in whose family the right has continued time immemorial) to perform the office of crowning the king. This nobleman is conducted with great state to Sabi, and having been splendidly entertained for five days, on the evening of the fifth nine guns are fired at the palace, to give the people notice that the king will be crowned the following day. At the same time one of his officers acquaints the directors of the European factories with the time and place, and invites them to be present at the ceremony.

In the evening of the sixth day, about five o'clock, the king sets out from his seraglio, attended by 40 of his favourite wives, dressed in the most sumptuous manner, and rather loaded than ornamented with gold necklaces, pendants, and bracelets, foot-chains of gold and silver, and the richest jewels. The king is dressed in the most magnificent manner, and on his head he wears a gilt helmet, decorated with red and white feathers. He is attended also by his guards, and proceeds from the seraglio to the throne, which is placed in an angle of the court to the east of the palace, and is called, The Court of the Coronation.

The throne consists of a large gilt arm chair a little elevated, with a velvet cushion richly laced with gold, on which the king sits, having another of the same quality at his feet. On the left hand of the king are placed his 40 favourite women; on the right his principal grandees; and on a line with them the chief Europeans of the English factories. One of the grandees holds in his hand an umbrella, which is more for ornament than use, as the ceremony is performed at night. It is made of the richest cloth of gold, the lining embroidered with gold, and the edges adorned with gold fringes and tassels. On the top of it is the figure of a cock as large as the life, and the pole that supports it is about six feet long, and gilt. Another grandee kneels before the king, and keeps fanning him during the whole ceremony. Opposite to his majesty are two of his dwarfs, who alternately represent to him the good qualities of his predecessor, extol his justice, liberality, and clemency, and exhort the king not only to imitate, but surpass him; and conclude their harangue with wishes for the king's happiness, and that his reign may be long and prosperous.

After these preparations, the grandee of Ardrah is conducted to the court of coronation, and some forms having passed, and a general silence ensuing, the grandee pronounces distinctly these words three times: "Here is your king; be loyal to him, and your prayers shall be heard by the king of Ardrah, my master;" after which he makes a low bow, and retreats. The cannon and small arms are immediately fired, the music strikes up, and the acclamations are renewed. The grandee of Ardrah is then conducted in great state to his apartments; after which the king, attended by his wives, his guards, and the Europeans, return to the seraglio, where the latter make their compliments to him as he enters the gate. The next day the king sends a handsome present to the Ardrah grandee; after which he must return home, not being suffered to remain three days longer in the kingdom.

Rejoicings continue for fifteen days, and the whole is closed with a grand procession to the house or temple of the great serpent.

The King's Household Establishment, Palace, Revenues, &c.

THE king of Whidah may be said to lead a life of luxury and indolence, his attention to public affairs being merely occasional. The greatest part of his time is spent in the recesses of the seraglio, attended by his wives. These are exceeding numerous. She who bears the first son is the chief, and is distinguished from the rest by the name of queen, or, as they term it, the king's great wife. She possesses very great privileges.

If a man meets one of the king's wives in the street, and should accidentally happen to touch her, she is never permitted to enter the seraglio again, for both she and the man are immediately sold as slaves. If it appears there was any premeditated design in their touching each other, the woman is sold, but the man is put to death, and all his effects confiscated to the king. For this reason, such as have occasion to go to the palace, on their entrance immediately call out, *ago*, which signifies, "Make way, retire, or take care;" when the women place themselves in a range on one side, and the men walk as close as they can on the other. In like manner, when the king's wives go to walk in the fields, whoever meets them must immediately fall on their knees, and continue in that position till they have passed.

Notwithstanding this deference from the people, his majesty has very little respect for his wives himself. They attend him on all occasions like servants; and, instead of his shewing any affection, he generally treats them with the most haughty contempt. Considering them only as slaves, on the most trifling occasions, he will sell a number of them to the Europeans; and even sometimes, when ships are waiting on the coast for slaves, he will supply them with whatever number they want to complete their complement. These deficiencies are supplied by the assiduity of his captains, or governors of the seraglio, who go about the streets, and seize such girls as they think will be pleasing to the king, nor dare any of his subjects make the least objection or resistance. These officers immediately present them to the king; and as they are the most handsome they can select, his majesty is sometimes particularly attracted by their beauties. When this happens to be the case, the object that most strikes his fancy is honoured with his company for two or three nights, after which she is discarded, and obliged to pass the remainder of her life in a state of obscurity; for which reason the women are so little desirous of becoming wives to the king, that they would rather prefer a life of celibacy.

The king's palace is magnificently furnished, and abounds with all the elegancies and luxuries of Europe. He observes great state on all public occasions. No subject is permitted to see him, unless his business be of a peculiar nature, and he has obtained the royal permission; in which case he is ushered in by the high priest, before whom he must prostrate himself, as well as to the king. Even his grandees (except when a general council is called) find some difficulty in obtaining an audience; and when they do, must appear before him in the most humiliating form. They advance creeping to a certain distance, till the king, by clapping his hands softly, gives them leave to speak, which they do in a low tone, with their face almost to the ground; after which they retire in the same manner they advanced. The captain of the seraglio, and the grand sacrificer, or high priest, are the only persons that are permitted to enter the seraglio without permission first obtained from the king; but if they want to speak to him, they must pay the same homage as any other subject. The Europeans, however, are exempted from these slavish ceremonies, being granted an audience whenever they desire it, and treated with every token of respect.

The king's revenues arise from his lands, and a duty upon all commodities sold in the markets, imported or exported. They are under the inspection of governors, who execute their trust without any emolument whatever. He also receives a moiety of all the tolls and fines in his vice-royalties. The revenues arising from the slave trade are very considerable, the king receiving three rix-dollars for every slave sold in his dominions. Every European vessel also pays him a pecuniary duty, exclusive of presents, which they make to the king for his protection, and the liberty of trading in his dominions.

Trade of Whidah in general.

THE chief articles of trade are slaves, elephants teeth, wax, and honey. Markets are established, and regulations formed, for carrying on commerce. The women, in many instances, are the chief agents, and deemed the best accomptants.

Slaves are paid for in gold dust; but the payments for other commodities are made in strings of cowries, each of which contains forty in number. Five of these strings make what the natives call a *fore*; and fifty fores make an *alkove*, which generally weighs about sixty pounds.

The various productions of these markets, and the regular manner in which the respective articles are disposed, would afford a pleasing sight, were not slaves included; but to behold a number of men, women, and children linked together, and arranged like beasts, is really shocking.

The kingdom of Whidah was greatly reduced in point of the number of its inhabitants, as well as the structure of its buildings, through the conquest obtained over it in the year 1726, by the king of Dahamoy, a neighbouring prince. He or his successors have preserved the authority he then attained ever since. It is at this time considered only as a province, and its king as a tributary prince: though the inhabitants are under the same laws and government, and possess the same indulgencies in their religious maxims, as before it was conquered.

The city of Sabi is very small in comparison to what it was before its being reduced to ashes. At that time it was at least four miles in circumference. The houses were neatly built, and the streets long, spacious, and uniformly disposed. The houses belonging to the factors were built in the European taste, and contained many neat and commodious apartments: on the first floor of each was a spacious hall, with an elegant balcony in front; and beneath, on the ground floor, were warehouses for the accommodation of their goods. The town was so exceeding populous, that, notwithstanding the breadth of the streets, it was sometimes attended with difficulty to pass them.

Markets were daily held in different parts of the city, where various sorts of European, as well as African commodities, were exposed to public sale, as also abundance of all kinds of provisions. Near the European factories was a spacious place ornamented with lofty and beautiful trees, under which the merchants and governors of the city every day assembled to transact business. But all these fine places were destroyed, nor is there a single remnant left of the magnificence and splendor that once graced this populous city.

KINGDOM OF ARDRAH.

THIS kingdom, which is populous, and contains many good towns and villages, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Benin, on the west by that of Whidah, and on the south by the Gulph of Guinea. It is very narrow towards the sea, but widens considerably, and is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Great and Little Ardrah.

The country in general is flat, and being well watered by several small rivers in different parts of it, the soil is fertile, and produces great quantities of Indian wheat, millet, yams, potatoes; as also several kinds of fruits, particularly oranges, lemons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, and pine-apples.

In manners, customs, dress, religion, &c. the inhabitants of this kingdom differ but little from those of Whidah. They are cleanly in their persons, washing themselves every morning and evening in pure water, and anointing themselves with civit, or some aromatic perfume.

Rice, pulse, herbs, and roots, with beef, mutton, and dog's flesh, constitute their common food. Their

ordinary drink is the beer called pito, which they generally mix with water; but the better sort drink palm-wine.

Those who live near the sea-side are employed in fishing, boiling of salt, and trading; but the inland inhabitants dedicate their time solely to the cultivation of their lands, and breeding cattle.

Like the natives of these climes, they are in general illiterate; for which reason, in buying and selling goods, they make use of cords tied in knots, each of which has a particular signification known only to themselves, and those who are accustomed to deal with them. Some few of the better sort understand the Portuguese tongue, which they not only speak fluently, but also read and write with great accuracy.

Polygamy being allowed here, every man takes as many wives as he thinks proper. As no deference is paid to birth or fortune, the poorest man has liberty to pay his addresses to a woman of the greatest quality; but if she rejects him on the first visit, he is not allowed to make a second. Little ceremony is used in their marriages, the chief thing consisting in the mutual consent of the parties, and their respective parents: when this is obtained, the bridegroom presents his bride with a callico paan, and invites all her relations, and his own likewise, to an entertainment, when he declares to the company that he takes the woman for his wife, and this public acknowledgment concludes the ceremony.

Men of superior rank marry girls at ten or twelve years of age; but they do not consummate till they have kept them several years in the character of servants. When the time is fixed for cohabiting, they present their brides with a piece of cloth, or short frock; and an elegant entertainment is provided for the relations of both parties.

They generally bury their dead in a vault under the house they inhabited in their life-time. The king is the chief person exempted from this custom: he is buried in some remote place from the palace; and many unhappy slaves fall victims on the occasion.

Their religious maxims are also much the same as those in Whidah, only they do not worship the serpent, on the contrary, they not only kill them, but are exceeding fond of their flesh. They are greatly alarmed at sickness, and tremble at the very name of death.

A person taken sick sends for a priest, who immediately goes to him, and sacrifices some animal for the recovery of his health. The priest rubs the patient's fetich with the blood, but the flesh of the animal is thrown away.

The fetiches belonging to the king and court are appointed by the high priest, and are birds of a black colour, not unlike the crows in England. Prodigious numbers of these are kept in the gardens of the palace; and it is equally criminal to pay disrespect to them here, as it is to the grand serpent at Whidah. The fetiches of the common people consist of a particular stone, a piece of wood, or some inanimate substance, which they always keep hid in their house underneath an earthen pot. Every six months they make a public offering to the priest in honour of their fetich, at the same time asking the idol several questions relative to their future welfare.

Such are the laws of Ardrah, that whoever disobeys the king's commands is beheaded, and his wives and children become the king's slaves. Insolvent debtors are left to the mercy of their creditors, who have liberty to pay themselves by selling them for slaves. The same punishment is also inflicted on him who has debauched another man's wife. The punishment for adultery committed by the women, and other crimes, are the same as at Whidah.

Assen, so called by the natives, but, by the Europeans, Great Ardrah, the capital of the kingdom, is situated about 16 leagues inland to the north-west from Little Ardrah, a spacious road leading from one to the other. The king's palace is a spacious edifice, though greatly inferior to the original building, which was destroyed

stroyed in the year 1726. The court is kept with great splendor.

The king seldom goes abroad; when he does, it is in so private a manner, that few of his subjects see him. He keeps a great number of women, with whom his time is chiefly employed. The principal of these has the title of queen, with this prerogative, that in case his majesty denies her any thing she has occasion for, she may sell some of his other wives to supply her wants.

The king always eats alone; and when he drinks, an officer makes a signal, by striking two small rods of iron together, in order that all who are within sight may turn away, and not look at his majesty; for to see him drink is a capital offence, and the punishment for it is death. An instance of this was once manifested in an infant, who being asleep by the king was awakened with the noise of the rods; and his majesty observing that the child cast its eyes on him while the cup was at his mouth, he immediately ordered it to be put to death.

Whoever presents any thing to the king offers it on his knee; and the like respect is shewn even to the provisions set on the table. Those who happen to be in the way of the officers when they carry them, prostrate themselves with their faces to the earth, and dare not rise till the dishes are out of sight.

Europeans are treated by the king and grandees of Ardrah with the same respect as at Whidah.

The chief commodity purchased here by the Europeans is slaves; and the articles they sell the natives consist of cowries, (which are the current coin of the kingdom,) flat iron bars, gilt leather, white and red damask, red cloth, copper bowls or cups, brass rings, beads or bugles of several colours, looking-glasses, firelocks, muskets, gun-powder, &c.

Little Ardrah, as it is called by the Europeans, and by the natives Offra, is a large and populous town, and, like the capital, enclosed with walls.

The country of Dahamoy, whose powerful king conquered the kingdoms of Ardrah and Whidah, is situated to the north of the Slave Coast, and extends a considerable way inland. This country is very wholesome, as it lies high, and is daily refreshed by fine cooling breezes; and from it, though at a considerable distance, may be seen the kingdom of Great Popo.

The king's palace is at a town called Abomay, situated 200 miles up in the inland country. He is a very powerful prince, and always keeps a considerable standing army; but it consists only of foot-soldiers. He has for his enemies a nation called Joes, who live a great way to the north towards Nubia, and all fight on horseback.

SECTION II.

THE GOLD COAST.

Boundaries. Divisions. Climate. Manner of gathering Gold.

THE Gold Coast is bounded on the east by the Slave Coast, on the west by the Tooth or Ivory Coast, on the north by Negroland, and on the south by the Ocean. It includes several districts. These districts contain some one, two, or more towns or villages, lying on the sea-shore, either under or between the European forts or castles. However, these villages are only for the convenience of trade and fishing, for the principal towns lie within land, and are very populous.

This coast being situated within the 5th degree of north latitude, the heat is excessive from October to March; but in the other six months the climate is tolerably temperate. The coast is very unhealthy, owing to the extreme heat of the day, and the coolness of the nights; to which may be added the damp sulphurous mists that arise every morning from the mountains. Tornados are also frequent here, particularly in the months of April, May, and June. These are violent storms of wind rising suddenly from the east and south-

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east, and sometimes from the north, with a few points to the west. They are generally attended with repeated claps of violent thunder and dreadful lightning, with prodigious showers of rain falling like a flood, and an uncommon darkness. They sometimes last an hour, and sometimes two or more; but as soon as they are over, the weather immediately becomes clear and fine. If they happen in the summer season, which is sometimes the case, they are not so violent as in the winter, but they are more incommodious both to land and sea-faring people, being usually followed by cold rains, so heavy and constant for several days together, that they seem to threaten a deluge.

The inland countries throughout abound with mines. Gold is also gathered on the sea-shore by the following method. In the morning succeeding a rainy night numbers of the natives go to the sea shore, each being furnished with two calabashes, one of which they fill with earth and sand. This they wash with many waters by turning the calabash round; the water, with the lightest of the mud, washing over the brim, while the gold, if there be any, sinks by its own weight to the bottom. Thus they continue till two or three spoonsfull are only left, and this they put into the other calabash; then fill the other again, and continue washing till about noon, when the calabash that receives the settlements being pretty well filled, is taken home and minutely searched. They sometimes find as much gold as is worth half-a-guinea, sometimes the value of a shilling, and sometimes none at all.

Vegetable and Animal Productions.

THE Gold Coast abounds with a variety of trees. One of the most remarkable, and which grows in great bundance, is the papay tree. The fruit at first is produced at the top of the trunk without any branches; but as the tree grows older it shoots out branches towards the top, which resemble young flocks, whereon likewise fruit grows.

The inland countries on the Coast of Guinea are in general fertile, and produce several sorts of grain, particularly maize and millet, which grow in great abundance. They have also several kinds of vegetables and roots.

Palm-trees grow here in abundance, and are of infinite service to the natives, not only from the wine that flows from the trunk, but the oil which they extract from their nuts. They have also plenty of various kinds of fruits, as plumbs, pears, oranges, citrons, coconuts, and figs: to which may be added ananas, water-melons, and the kormantin apple. The last fruit is more peculiar to this country than any other: it is about the size of a walnut, and has a green husk; but the outer rind is of a yellowish cast, somewhat inclining to red. In the core are four large flat kernels separated by the pulp, which is red and white, of a sweetish tart taste, but most inclining to the latter. It is a very agreeable and refreshing fruit, and of infinite service to those afflicted with the bloody-flux; for it is very astringent, and, when boiled with wine and sugar, is not only more useful, but more pleasant than ramarinds.

The tame animals of this country are bulls, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs; but the pasture is so indifferent, that they are, in general, exceeding poor and small. The cows yield but little milk; and one of the best, when full grown, is so light, that it will not weigh above 250 lb. The sheep are not above half the size of those of Europe; and, instead of wool, their bodies are covered with long shaggy hair. The goats are very plentiful, but small in proportion to those of Europe. However, the flesh is very fat and sweet, and greatly preferred to that of sheep.

Their chief domestic animals are dogs and cats. The Negroes frequently eat the former, and are very fond of them, inasmuch that they will not only give a sheep for one of them, but also something to boot. They prefer dog's flesh to any other, and consider it in the

same

same light as the Europeans do venison. The dogs here are much like our foxes, and have long, upright ears. Their tails are long, but taper, and without hair: the skin is also naked; and they never bark, but only howl. They are very disagreeable to the sight, but much more so to the touch. The blacks call them *Cabra de Matto*, which, in the Portuguese, signifies a *wild goat*; and so universally are they admired in this country, that in some places they breed them for sale, and carry them to the markets, where they fetch a much better price than the sheep.

Cats are also greatly esteemed by the Negroes, but they do not eat them, unless out of necessity. If they are good mousers they value them much, as they are prodigiously pestered with various sorts of vermin. They are in general very handsome, and are called by the natives *ambaio*.

The wild beasts, both on the coast and in the inland parts, are of various sorts. Among these none are more distinguished than the elephants; for though in other parts these animals are rendered docile and useful, yet here they are never tamed. Notwithstanding this they seldom hurt any one, nor is it an easy matter to provoke them.

A celebrated traveller, in his description of Guinea, relates the following story of one of these animals. "One morning an elephant came to El Mina, walking easily along the shore under the hill of St. Jago. Some Negroes were so bold as to go to him without any thing in their hands: he suffered them to encompass him, and went quietly along with them under mount St. Jago, where one of our officers shot him above the eye: but this, and the following shot, which some Negroes now poured on him, did not even make him mend his pace, and he only seemed between whiles to threaten the Negroes, by pricking up his ears, which were of a prodigious size. He, however, went on, and soon entered our garden. This drew several people together. He had broke down four or five cocoa-trees, and, in our presence, he broke down five or six more; when the strength he seemed to use in breaking down a tree might be fitly compared to the force exerted by a man in knocking down a child of three or four years of age. While he stood here above an hundred shot were fired at him, which made him bleed as if an ox had been killed. But this did not make him stir; he only sat up his ears, and made the men apprehend that he would follow them. At length a Negro going softly behind him, wantonly got hold of his tail, and was going to cut off a piece of it: but the elephant giving the Negro a blow with his trunk, and drawing him to him, trod upon him two or three times, and, as if that was not sufficient, gored two holes in his body with his teeth, large enough for a man's double fist to enter. He then let him lie, and even stood still while two Negroes ventured to fetch away the body, without offering to hurt them. At length the elephant, after he had been about an hour in the garden, wheeled about as if he intended to fall on us, on which we all flew to the fore door, in order to make our escape; but he followed none of us, but going to the back door threw it to a great distance; then turning from it, walked through the garden hedge, and proceeding slowly to the river by mount St. Jago, bathed himself. Having thus refreshed himself a little, he came out of the river, and stood under some trees by some of our water-tubs, where he also cooled himself, and then broke the tubs in pieces, as he did also a canoe that lay by them. The firing here renewed, till the elephant at last fell; after which they cut off his trunk, which was so hard and tough, that it cost the Negroes thirty strokes before they could separate it, which must have been very painful to the elephant, since it made him roar, which was the only noise I heard him make. He was no sooner dead, than the Negroes fell on him in crowds, each cutting off as much as he could; so that he furnished great numbers with food. Those who pretended to understand elephant shooting, afterwards told us, that we ought to have shot iron bullets: indeed,

ours were not only of lead, but too small, and therefore most of them had rebounded from his hide, and very few penetrated his skull."

Elephants here are very numerous, as are likewise tigers, jackalls, apes, and monkies. There are also wild boars, but not so rapacious as in most other countries, and their flesh is very good.

Besides the wild beasts of a voracious nature, there are others, as harts, antelopes, and hares. The former of these are of various sorts.

Here are also several sorts of wild cats, some of which are spotted like tigers, and are very fierce and mischievous. Among these is the civet-cat, called by the Negroes *kankan*, and by the Portuguese *gatos de algalia*. They generally vex and tease them before they take out the musk from the bag; for the more the animal is enraged previous to this operation, the better will be the civet. The bag which contains the civet is largest in the male. The liquor of which the civet consists appears to be excreted from certain glands that lie between the coats that compose the bag from which the civet is taken.

Here are some porcupines, which are, in general, about two feet in height, and their teeth are remarkably sharp. They are very daring, inasmuch that they will attack the largest and most dangerous snakes. When irritated they shoot their quills at the enemy, and with such violence that they oftentimes prove fatal. The Negroes esteem their flesh as a great delicacy.

There are several other animals on this part of the coast of Guinea, and, among the rest, that remarkable one called by the natives *potto*, but more generally known by the name of the sloth, and is said to be the most ugly creature in the universe. This animal is so slow in its motion, that it cannot travel above twenty yards in a day. The head is strangely disproportioned, and the fore feet greatly resemble hands. The hair of the young ones is of a pale mouse-colour, but that of the old is red, and looks more like wool than hair. The female, when big with young, climbs the trunk of some old tree, in which there is an hollow, from some accidental decay, at a distance from the ground. Here she deposits her young, which are generally two in number. During the time she suckles her young she continues in the same hole, and though that period is very short, before it is expired she becomes almost emaciated. When the young are able to crawl after her, she leads them to the nearest branches of the tree, where they devour the leaves first of one and then another. When the tree is quite stripped they are obliged to seek a new place of abode. The journey, however, to the next tree takes up no small time in performing, and though the creature is fat and in good condition at the time he leaves his former habitation, yet, before he has reached his new one, he becomes as poor and lean as possible; and if the tree is high, or at any distance, and he meets with nothing on his journey, he inevitably dies with hunger. While it is thus travelling slowly on the ground, any beast may kill and devour it, for it is entirely defenceless, and, when attacked, only makes a noise like the crying of a kitten. The characteristics of this animal are its slow pace, and its having the fore feet longer than those behind, with three claws on each foot.

In the woods is another four-footed animal called by the Negroes *quaggelo*. They knock them on the head, sell their skins to the Europeans, and eat their flesh, which they say is exceeding white and palatable. It is a very inoffensive creature, and will not hurt any thing. It lives on pismires, catching them with its tongue, which is extremely long and glutinous.

The guano is an amphibious creature, and greatly resembles a crocodile, but is very inoffensive.

The poultry here consists of cocks and hens, geese, ducks, turkeys, and pigeons. The wild sort are mallards, pheasants, and partridges: besides which they have peacocks, fieldfares, cranes, ring-doves, &c. There are also great numbers of parrots, paroquets, eagles,

eagles, kites, green-birds, and several others peculiar to this country.

The best birds here for use are the wild ducks, which are very plentiful; and little inferior to those of Europe. There are also various kinds of small birds, some of which are exceeding beautiful.

The crown bird found on this coast is more beautiful than those in the other parts of Guinea. They are about the size of a stork, and receive their name from a large tuft that grows on their heads, some of which are red, others blue, and some of a shining gold. Their bodies are chiefly covered with black feathers; the sides of their heads are beautified with purple spots; and the feathers of their wings and tails are of different colours, as red, yellow, white, and black. Their tails are very long, and the Negroes pluck their feathers to ornament their heads.

The Gold Coast abounds with reptiles and insects. They have many snakes, some of which are large and venomous: also large scorpions, some of which are as big as small lobsters, having a bladder full of poison at the end of their tails, which they discharge at their enemies with pleasure.

Locusts are very numerous here, and sometimes make great destruction among the corn and vegetables.

The millipedes, or hog-lice, are very numerous; and though their sting is not so dangerous as that of the scorpions, yet it occasions a very sharp pain for some time.

Among the insects here the most remarkable are the large ants, which differ from those in other parts of the world. These are of various sorts and colours: some are white, others black, and some red. They are very rapacious, and will sometimes attack a living sheep, which, in a night's time, they will reduce to a perfect skeleton, leaving not the least thing except the bones. Fowls and chickens frequently share the same fate; and even rats, though such active animals, are not able to escape. As soon as one of these animals is attacked by the ants, his destruction is at hand; for they gather in such prodigious numbers that they soon over-power him; nor will they quit him till they are sufficiently formidable to carry him off to some convenient place, when they immediately fall to work, and, in a short time, reduce it to a mere skeleton. A late writer says, "If these little animals have not a language (as many believe they have) yet they certainly have some method of communicating their thoughts, as I experienced in the following manner: when I saw two or three straggling ants on the hunt, I would kill a cock-roach, and throw it in their way. As soon as they found what it was, they sent away for help, while the other one staid and watched the dead body, till their comrade returned at the head of a large posse, who, if they found themselves too few to carry off the prize, detached a second messenger for a reinforcement."

The gnats are another plague on this coast, especially near woods and marshy grounds. They sting very sharp, and raise prodigious swellings, attended with violent pain. They are most troublesome in the night, and frequently oblige the inhabitants to desert their habitations.

Persons, Dispositions, Buildings, Furniture, Diet, Employment, Marriage Ceremonies, Mechanical Skill, Diversions, Diseases, Funeral and Religious Solemnities, Classes, Government, Weapons, Mode of engaging with an Enemy, &c. &c. of the Natives of the Gold Coast.

THE natives of the Gold Coast are, in general, of a middling stature, and well proportioned. They have sparkling eyes, small ears, and lofty eye-brows. Their teeth are very white, and tolerably well ranged. Their lips are red, and not so thick as those of the inhabitants in the other parts of Guinea. They are broad shouldered, have large arms, thick hands, and long fingers. They anoint their bodies every morning with

palm-oil, so that their skin is very smooth and sleek: but exclusive of this, they consider that practice as very wholesome, and a preservative from vermin, which they are naturally apt to breed.

In stature the women are rather shorter than the men, but very strait and well proportioned: they have fine sparkling eyes, small mouths, and beautiful teeth: their noses are in general high, and a little crooked: and they have all long curling hair. They are good house wives, very cleanly in their persons, and have excellent constitutions. They are naturally sober and industrious, but proud, artful, and coverous.

The men in general have excellent memories, and are very quick of apprehension, but are naturally slothful and indolent, so that they are only industrious from necessity. Those of consequence walk with their eyes fixed on the ground, seldom looking about, or taking notice of any one, except it be a person of higher rank; but to their inferiors they shew such contempt, that they will not even deign to speak to them.

They are generally very complaisant to strangers, pay great respect to the Europeans in particular, and are highly pleased with their accustomed civilities.

There is a distinction in their dress according to rank; but that of the women is far superior to that of the men. The lower class wear only a piece of cloth round the waist, and another between the thighs, fastened with a girdle. The garments of the better sort are composed of linen, silk, or stuff: they are made two or three ells long, folded round the waist, with the ends hanging down to their ancles. They dress their hair in a variety of forms, decorate it with different trinkets, and wear ornaments in their ears, round their necks, and on their arms and legs.

Their habitations in the inland parts are much better, and more uniform, than those on the coast. Some of their villages are so constructed as to form narrow lanes, in the center of which is an open place, adapted not only as a market for the sale of provisions and other commodities, but also as a place of diversion for the inhabitants.

The dwellings of the better sort are built of the same materials as those of the common people, but are more lofty and spacious.

The houses in general have small huts adjoining to them, most of which are divided into different apartments, by partitions made of rushes, bound close together: these apartments are adapted for their wives, each woman having one to herself.

Each family has a granary or store-house without the town, where they keep their wheat, millet, and other grain.

A few stools, some earthen pots to hold water and dress victuals, and a few small wooden cups, are the whole of their furniture. The poorer sort have only a mat to lie on, which they spread on the ground, and some of them cover themselves with the skins of beasts. The better sort use quilts made of rushes, on which they lay a fine mat with a bolster, and by it keep a large kettle with water to wash them. They all keep a good fire in their bed-room, to preserve them against the damp of the rainy season, and always lay with their feet towards it.

As to their diet, they prefer either flesh or fish that stinks, to that which is sweet and wholesome. Their common food is a pot full of millet boiled to the consistence of bread; or, instead of that, yams and potatoes, over which they pour a little palm oil, and mix with it some herbs, and a small quantity of stinking fish. They take up their victuals with their fingers, and eat it very greedily. They lay it on a mat on the ground, and sit cross-legged, leaning on one side, or else with both their legs under squatting on their heels. The husband generally eats alone in his own hut, and his wives separately in theirs, except by chance, when he invites his chief wife, or pays a visit to that which is his greatest favourite.

The occupations of the men are trading, fishing, or making palm wine, great quantities of which are every day sold at the markets; and the profits they get from their labour they give to their wives, who dispose of it with great frugality.

The women are chiefly employed in providing for the family, under the direction of the principal wife. The first thing they attend to, in the article of diet, is to make bread.

The ceremonies of their marriages are, in general, the same as those all along the whole Guinea Coast. Those attendant on their daughters when they are too young to consummate, are as follow. On the day appointed for the wedding, all the kindred on both sides meet at the house of the bride's father, where an elegant entertainment is provided. In the evening the bride is taken to the bridegroom's house, and put into her husband's bed between two women, where she remains all night. This ceremony is repeated three successive nights, after which the bride is sent back to her father's house, and there kept till she is of age to consummate.

Some of the men here have from twenty to thirty wives; for the greater the number, the more they are respected: but the common sort have seldom more than ten.

Their children are naturally of so strong a constitution, that little care is required in nursing them. The poorer sort of women fasten them to their backs when they go to their daily labour, and suckle them at different times, by raising them up to their shoulders, and turning their breasts over to them. They take great pains in washing them every night and morning, when they rub them well with palm-oil, which makes their joints flexible, and greatly facilitates their growth. They go quite naked till they are ten or twelve years of age, when they wear a kind of clout fastened round the middle. When they arrive at that age, the father takes the boys under his care, and brings them up to his own business. The girls are taught to weave baskets, mats, caps, purses, and other things; as also to grind corn, bake bread, and carry it to market for sale.

The boys are chiefly brought up to fishing or agriculture; but some of them are put to trades, the principal of which are smiths, carpenters, and goldsmiths.

Some of them are good potters, having learnt that art from the Portuguese. Though their earthen-ware is thin, yet it is very substantial, and equally good for use as any made in Europe.

The natives are fond of dancing, and have a great variety of musical instruments, all which they make themselves.

Dancing is a diversion so universally admired by both sexes, that it is the custom for them to assemble every evening at the market place for that purpose. On these occasions they dress themselves in their best attire. The women have a number of small bells hanging at their feet and legs, and the men carry small fans in their hands, made of the tails of elephants or horses. Those who compose the dance divide into couples opposite to each other, and the dance commences by their throwing themselves into many wild ridiculous postures, advancing and retreating, leaping, stamping on the ground, bowing their heads to each other as they pass, and muttering some strange noise. The men then strike each other alternately with their fans, and the women lay large circles of straw on the ground, into which they first jump, and dance round them, then throw them up into the air, and catch them with their hands. Thus they divert themselves for about an hour, when they break up the dance, and return to their respective habitations. In some towns they have public dances, instituted by order of their kings, which are held annually for eight successive days, when people of both sexes resort to it from all parts of the country. This is called the dancing season, and the greatest mirth and festivity is preserved during the whole of its continuance.

Unwholesome as is the climate here, the natives are troubled with few diseases. That with which they are

most afflicted is the canker, or flesh worm, already described. The other distempers are the lues venerea, the head-ach, and fevers: but these last they think little of, as they are in general very easily cured by compositions made of herbs and other simples.

As they never keep any account of time, their age cannot be ascertained. When they begin to decline, their colour fades, and loses a great part of its blackness: the hair turns grey, and the skin wrinkled. The women, in particular, have the most disagreeable aspects.

On the death of any one, the relations and friends immediately assemble, and surrounding the corpse, express the most hideous lamentations. They then wrap the body in an old cotton cloth, and put it into a coffin made of the bark of a tree, covering the face over with the skin of a goat. In this manner they expose it in the open air for half a day, the favourite wife sitting by it all the time, and rubbing the face with a whisp of straw. If the deceased is a woman, the husband uses the same ceremonies. During this time the nearest relations appointed on the occasion sing mournfully, and beat their brass basons, till the bearers come to remove the body, and every thing is ready for the procession. In the interim, however, an old woman goes from house to house, and collects something for the funeral charges, towards which every person in the town or village is obliged to contribute in proportion to their circumstances. With the money thus collected they purchase a cow or an ox, which they present to the priest for performing the functions of his office. This beast the priest sacrifices, and sprinkles the fetich of the deceased with its blood, which with them is considered as a propitiatory offering for the dead. The previous ceremonies finished; the corpse is laid on a board, and the company sing and dance round it for a short time; after which it is carried to the grave by men; but only women are suffered to attend as mourners. The chief, or favourite wife, walks immediately after the corpse; and if the deceased be a woman, the husband only follows it, no other man being permitted to attend. When they come to the place of interment, the body is immediately laid in the grave, which is generally made about four feet deep: it is enclosed with stakes, and over it they raise a shed or covering, so that neither rain or beasts can come near it. When the body is deposited, the women creep beneath this shed, and renew their lamentations by way of a conclusive farewell. They then raise a square heap of earth over the body, on which they lay the principal tools and instruments used by the deceased in his lifetime, as also his cloaths and weapons. The friends of the defunct also bring their gifts, which they either lay in the grave, or place over it, as tokens of their affection.

On the death of a king, all his subjects express the most excessive lamentation; and as his condition and dignity requires great attendance, he is provided with servants, not only to accompany him in his journey, but also to wait on him in the other world. To effect this, each of his grandees, or chief men, present him with a slave; others give him one of their wives, and some one of their children; so that there is always a considerable number, who are all sacrificed previous to the interment of the royal corpse. The persons thus designed for victims are ensnared by stratagem; for, on the day appointed for the funeral, they are sent on a pretended errand to some remote place, where people chosen for the purpose lie in wait, and easily dispatch them. Their bodies are brought to the palace and publicly exposed, as a testimony of the great respect in which the king was held by his subjects. After this they are besmeared with blood, and carried with the royal corpse in great solemnity to the grave, which is previously made in a wood, or some other place equally private. Their bodies only, however, are interred; for their heads are severed off, and fixed on poles round the grave, which is considered as a very honourable ornament.

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ornament. Besides these, the king's favourite wives request to be sacrificed, that they may be laid with him in the same grave, in order to accompany him in the other world. They bury also with him his clothes and weapons, with such other things as he esteemed most valuable; and near the grave they place vessels containing victuals and drink, which they change as often as they find them empty.

The negroes on the Gold Coast are in general idolaters. Every one has a fetish or charm, to which they pay the greatest reverence. These fetishes are formed of different things, according to each person's fancy: some have the tooth of a dog, tyger, elephant, or civet-cat; others have an egg, the bone of some bird, the head of a fowl, ox or goat; and others again, the bone of a fish, the end of a ram's horn, or a bunch of cords made of the bark of trees: their regard for them is so great, that whatever they promise them they perform in the strictest manner, and that in every instance of abstinence and mortification.

There are fetishes common to each kingdom: these are generally some large mountain or remarkable tree, which if any person should be so indiscreet as to cut or disfigure, they would be put to the most cruel death. Each village has also its guardian fetish, dressed at the common expence, to which they pray for general benefits; and for this patron they erect, in the most public place, a kind of altar made with reeds, and covered with a roof of palm leaves. In a word, they are, in general, from the highest to the lowest class, most inviolably and unreservedly attached to the particular objects of their adoration.

The negroes tremble at the idea of the devil, to whom they ascribe all their misfortunes; and are even terrified at his name. Such are their notions of the injuries they receive from this fiend, that they have an annual custom of banishing him from every town and village throughout the respective districts.

The two grand days of worship in the week are what they call the bossom-day and the fetish day: but the latter is always observed with the greatest ceremony and devoutness.

The natives of the Gold Coast are divided into five degrees or classes. The first are their kings. The second their nobility. The third may be called civil magistrates, their province being only to take care of the welfare of the city or village, and to appease such tumults as may arise among the inhabitants. The fourth are the common people, employed in agriculture, fishing, &c. And the fifth and last are, the slaves, who are either sold by their relations, taken in war, or become so by poverty.

The different kingdoms are governed either in form of monarchies, or republics. The kings are, in general, hereditary, but some few of them elective.

Their chief justices or judges, as well in kingdoms as republics, are commonly chosen from among the most wealthy, and particularly the governors of towns and villages. These take cognizance of all civil and criminal cases, but their decision is not absolutely ultimate, as the parties can appeal to the king.

Offences of a criminal nature are punished by fine. A murderer, indeed, is sentenced to death; but it is seldom any one is executed, for if he has either effects himself, or friends to pay the fine, he escapes; if not, he suffers. In the latter case, as soon as sentence is passed he is delivered to the executioner, who blinds him, and ties his hands behind him; after which he leads him to some field without the town, where he makes him kneel down, bending his head forward, when he thrusts a spear through his body. This done he cuts off his head with a hatchet, and dividing the body into four parts leaves it exposed to the birds of the air.

Robbery is usually punished by a restitution of the goods, and paying a fine, which is levied in proportion to the value of the goods stolen, and the circumstances of the person who commits the fact.

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On this part of the coast the crime of adultery is punished only by fine; for which reason many women, by consent of their husbands, bestow their favours merely to take advantage of those who have been captivated by their charms. A late traveller, speaking of this circumstance, says, "These men are truly contented cuckolds, who give their wives full orders to entice other men into their embraces; which done, those she-devils immediately tell their husbands, who know very well how to fleece the amorous spark."

It is impossible to conceive what subtilties they use to draw men, but especially strangers, into the net. To the latter they will pretend that they have no husbands, and are yet unmarried and free; but the fact is no sooner over than the husband appears, and gives them cogent reasons to repent their credulity.

In cases of adultery the inland negroes are more rigid in exacting the penalty than those of the coast. Nothing less, in general, than life will satisfy the party offended; though the punishment is sometimes mitigated by virtue of an enormous pecuniary consideration.

In cases of damage the negroes are responsible not only for their children, but also their relations, who in such cases help one another by a mutual contribution, each giving something towards the fine, according to his circumstances, otherwise the offender would be condemned either to slavery or death. In like manner every man is obliged to make good the injury done by his slave; for whatever crime he commits his master must pay the fine imposed. In general the fine is proportioned to the circumstances of the criminal.

Contentions frequently break out among the different princes of this coast, on which occasions war is formally declared, and the kings, by their governors, appoint a day for their subjects to assemble in arms. This being done, a herald is sent to denounce it to the enemy, at the same time fixing the day, place, and hour of battle. The grandees, or nobles, then repair to court, and after complimenting the king proceed to the war, taking with them their wives and families; and if the motives of the quarrel be great, before they set out they destroy their houses and towns, that the enemy, if victorious, may gain the less advantage of their conquest.

The kings have a great number of guards, who constantly attend their persons either at home or in the field. These are well furnished with arms, and make a most formidable appearance.

They are very dexterous in the use of their warlike implements, whether musquets, sabres, lances, or shields, or bows and arrows, and act either on the offensive or defensive in a very powerful manner.

In battle they engage their enemy without paying the least attention to order: each commander has his men close together in a crowd, himself being hid in the midst of them, and in this manner they engage one heap of men against another. In case a few are killed the rest immediately run away, unless surrounded by the enemy; and so natural is cowardice to them, that when one officer sees another enthralled, instead of advancing to assist him, he consults only his own safety by a speedy flight. They do not stand upright in battle, but stoop that the bullets may fly over their heads: as soon as they have discharged their guns they immediately run back to load them, and then return and resume the fire.

The victorious party make as many prisoners as they can, which is the chief end of all their wars. Those who cannot raise their ransom are either kept or sold as slaves: if a person of rank is taken he is well secured, and his ransom is fixed very high; but if the person who occasioned the war falls into their hands, they will not admit of any ransom, for he is put to death, as the most effectual means of preventing his raising any future ruptures.

When a treaty of peace is agreed on, the contending princes engage to meet each other on a certain day,

to proclaim their determinations. The place is generally a large open plain, and each party appears as if armed for battle, bringing with them their fetishes. The priests, who are always the principal people in all these ceremonies, make the chiefs swear reciprocally to cease hostilities, to forget what has passed, and, as a security for their promises, to give mutual hostages. As soon as these oaths are taken, the drums and trumpets begin to sound, the parties throw down their arms, and embrace each other with the greatest cordiality: after which they pass the remainder of the day in singing and dancing, and commerce is renewed as if no quarrel had happened.

Provinces and Kingdoms of the Gold Coast. Settlements of the Europeans.

AXIM is a kingdom very fertile, and particularly abounds in rice, which is the staple commodity. Near the chief village, called Ackombone, is the Dutch Fort of St. Anthony. The dress, customs, manners, religion, &c. of the natives, are the same as on the Gold Coast in general.

Fredericksburg, about seven leagues distant from Axim, is a large and handsome fort, likewise belonging to the Dutch. A considerable traffic is carried on here in gold, ivory, and slaves. This fort is well known by the name of Conny's Castle, which it obtained from the following circumstances. When the Prussians, who were first possessed of it, left the Coast of Guinea, they committed the care of the fort to one John Conny, a black, with strict orders not to deliver it up to any nation but the Prussians. Soon after their arrival in Europe, the king of Prussia sold all his interest on the Coast of Guinea to the Dutch India Company, there being another fort belonging to him situated upon Cape Three Points.

When the Dutch came to demand this fort, John Conny refused to deliver it up to them, which produced a war that continued for some years, and cost the Dutch much money, and a great deal of bloodshed. On the other hand, Conny, flushed with his repeated victories over the Dutch, became a mortal enemy to them, and considered them in the most obnoxious light; to shew which he had a small path, that led from the outer gate to the inner apartment of his castle, paved with the skulls of Dutchmen who were slain in battle; and, as a farther mark of contempt, he had one skull tipped with silver, which he used as a punch-bowl. However, in 1724 he was compleatly conquered, when he fled into the country, and the Dutch took possession of the fort, in whose hands it has ever since continued.

A few leagues from Cape Three Points, or Cape Puntas, so called from its consisting of three little heads or hills lying contiguous to each other, is a small fort called Dorothea, taken from the Prussians by the Dutch, who still retain it.

In the mountainous parts of Anta, a country extending near twenty miles from east to west, there are great numbers of elephants and tigers, which often infest the European forts, and not only terrify the inhabitants, but destroy their cattle. Bosman, who was chief factor of a settlement the French once had at Sakkundi, gives a singular relation of the audacity of one of these animals, which, as a matter of curiosity, we shall preserve in his own words: "Some of my sheep (says he) as well as those of my neighbour the English factor, were several nights devoured by a tiger, which at last grew so bold, that he came at three in the afternoon to the lodge, and killed a couple of sheep. Perceiving him in time, I went, accompanied by my gunner, two Englishmen, and a party of Negroes, all armed with muskets, in pursuit of him, and soon overtook him, tho' not before he had got into a small thicket of underwood, which we beset. The gunner went into the thicket to see where he lurked, but in a few minutes came running back frightened almost out of his wits, having left his hat and slippers behind. The tiger had even bitten

him, and was ready to seize him, when, to the man's good fortune, the beast happening to be affrighted by some falling branches, he retreated, and gave the gunner time to escape.

"One of the Englishmen, impatient at waiting so long, resolved to march into the wood with his musket, if possible, to dislodge him. The tiger suffered him to approach close, and then fell upon him with extreme fury, seized him with his feet by the shoulder-blade, and fixing his teeth in his side, would, doubtless, immediately have torn him to pieces, if, by crying out, he had not drawn us to his assistance, which obliged the tiger to quit his prey: yet the man was so miserably handled, that he lay senseless about half a day, partly by the venom of the bite, and partly by the fright.

"The Negroes were so terrified at this, that each quitted his post, and gave the tiger room to escape, which he soon attempted, but in his flight out of the thicket, something happened truly tragi-comical. The under factor of the English fort, near which the adventure happened, had promised to come to our assistance; and accordingly, the very moment the tiger quitted the wood, he advanced with his musket in his hand, attended by several of his own people; but seeing the tiger making up to him, he ran as fast back as his legs would carry him. This putting him out of breath, and being grievously affrighted, about a musket-shot from the fort, he fell over a stone, where the tiger had already overtaken him. The company stood trembling at a distance, looking when he would be torn in pieces; but the beast, to their surprise, instead of attacking him, turned off and fled. This I attributed to the cry which he and his followers made; for they durst not shoot, he stood so near the factory.

"The same tiger, however, was not deterred from coming again in a few days after, and killing some sheep, which put me upon another way of trying to catch him. I made a sort of cage of strong pales, twelve feet long and four broad, laying 1000 weight of stone on it, to prevent his breaking out above. I furnished it with a double plank floor, and in one of the corners I put a lesser cage, which took up one quarter of the whole, with a couple of small hogs in it. After this I set the door like that of a rat-trap, so that the tiger could not come in to seize the hogs without shutting himself in, while the little cage secured the hogs from his fury.

"The stratagem succeeded so well, that three nights after the tiger was caught at midnight. Instead of roaring, as was expected, he immediately set his teeth to work, and had certainly eat his way out of limbo, could he have had but one half hour's time; for he had soon rent the inner from the outer door, and eaten the palisades half through: in short, I came seasonably to prevent his breaking jail. Not to dally with fruitless firing, I clapped the muzzle of my musket, laden with three balls, between the pales, which the beast furiously caught at, and so furnished me with a fine opportunity of dispatching him at one shot. He was about the size of a common calf, well provided with large teeth and claws.

"This success furnished the company with a feast of eight days; for, by the custom of the country of Anta, he who catches a tiger is privileged for eight days to seize all the palm-wine brought to market, without paying any thing. This was accordingly done, and the whole eight days were spent by the Negroes in shouting, dancing, leaping, and all manner of public jollity."

In divers parts of the Gold Coast there are forts belonging to different European powers, some of which are in a great degree abandoned, and many of them in a ruinous state. There are likewise many villages, concerning which there is nothing worthy of mention.

The kingdom of Fetu is represented as a fertile place, and the inhabitants as deriving considerable advantages from agriculture, and several articles of trade. In the town of Elmina in this kingdom, is the Castle of St. George,

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George, a very considerable and strong fort in the possession of the Dutch.

The most important fortrefs belonging to the English on the coast of Guinea is called Cape Coast Castle. It stands on a large rock that projects into the sea. It was taken by the Dutch from the Portuguese, who built it, and afterwards fell into the hands of the English. The African Company having obtained a charter for it, took upon them to enlarge and improve it. On this coast there are other forts of less note belonging to the English.

The town of Anamaboe is remarkable for the following circumstance: An English captain, in the year 1749, went up this part of the country, with some of his people, to traffic, where he was introduced to a negro king, who had 40,000 men. This prince being captivated with the polite behaviour of the English entertained them with the greatest civility, and at last reposed so much confidence in the captain as to entrust him with his son, about 18 years of age, with another sprightly youth, to be brought to England, and educated in the European manner. The captain received them with great joy, but they were no sooner safe in his possession than he basely sold them for slaves. In a short time after he died, and the ship coming to England, the officers related the whole affair; on which the government sent to pay their ransom, and they were brought to England, and put under the care of the earl of Halifax, who gave orders for cloathing and educating them in a very genteel manner. They were afterwards introduced to his majesty, richly dressed in the European manner. They appeared several times at the theatres, and one night in particular at Covent-Garden to see the tragedy of Oroonoko. They were received with great applause, which they acknowledged by a genteel bow, and then took their seats in a box. The sight of persons of their own colour on the stage, apparently in the same distress from which they had been so lately delivered; the tender interview between Imoinda and Oroonoko, who was betrayed by the treachery of a captain; his account of his sufferings, and the repeated abuse of his placability and confidence, strongly affected them with that generous grief which pure nature always feels, and which art had not yet taught them to suppress: in short, the young prince was so far overcome, that he was obliged to retire at the end of the fourth act. His companion remained, but wept the whole time; a circumstance which affected the audience yet more than the whole play, and doubled the tears that were shed for Oroonoko and Imoinda.

These young Africans were baptized by the reverend Mr. Terrett, then reader of the Temple, who took great pains to instruct them in the Christian faith. They appeared perfectly satisfied during their stay in England; but the young prince being desirous of seeing his royal father, he, with his companion, politely took their leave, and arrived safe at Anamaboe in the month of December 1750.

The singular circumstances that occasioned the African prince to pay a visit to England gave rise to several publications during his stay here. Among these was an admirable poem, intitled, "The African Prince now in England, to Zara at his Father's Court;" of which the following is an abstract:

Princes, my fair, unfortunately great,
Born to the pompous vassalage of state,
Whene'er the public calls, are doom'd to fly
Domestic bliss, and break the private tie,
Fame pays with empty breath the toils they bear,
And love's soft joys are chang'd to glorious care:
Yet conscious virtue, in the silent hour,
Rewards the hero with a noble dower.
For this alone I dar'd the roaring sea,
Yet more---for this I dar'd to part with thee.

Fix'd the dread voyage, and the day decreed,
When, duty's victim, love was doom'd to bleed;

Too well my mem'ry can those scenes renew,
We met to sigh, to weep our last adieu.
If in some distant land my prince should find
Some nymph more fair, you cry'd, as Zara kind---
Mysterious doubt! which could at once impart
Relief to mine, and anguish to thy heart:
Still let me triumph in the fear express'd,
The voice of love, that whisper'd in thy breast;
Nor call me cruel, for my truth shall prove,
'Twas but the vain anxiety of love.

How vainly proud the arrogantly great
Presume to boast a monarch's godlike state!
Subject alike, the peasant and the king,
To life's dark ills, and care's corroding sting.
From guilt and fraud, that strikes in silence sure,
No shield can guard us, and no arms secure.
By these, my fair, subdu'd, thy prince was lost,
A naked captive on a barb'rous coast.
What dreadful change! abandon'd and alone,
The shouted prince is now a slave unknown;
To watch his eyes no bending courtiers wait,
No hailing crowds proclaim his regal state;
A slave, condemn'd, with unrewarded toil,
To turn, from morn to eve, a burning soil;
At night I mingled with a wretched crew,
Who by long use with woe familiar grew;
Of manners brutish, merciless and rude,
They mock'd my sufferings, and my pangs renew'd;
In groans, not sleep, I pass'd the weary night,
And rose to labour with the morning light.

But from this dreadful scene with joy I turn;
To trust in Heav'n, of me let Zara learn.
The wretch, the sordid hypocrite, that sold
His charge, an unsuspecting prince, for gold,
That justice mark'd, whose eyes can never sleep,
And death, commission'd, smote him on the deep;
The gen'rous crew their port in safety gain,
And tell my mournful tale, nor tell in vain;
The king, with horror of th' atrocious deed,
In haste commanded, and the slave was freed.
No more Britannia's cheek, the blush of shame
Burns for my wrongs, her king restores her fame:
Propitious gales, to freedom's happy shore,
Waft me triumphant, and the priest restore;
Whate'er is great and gay around me shine,
And all the splendor of a court is mine:
And knowledge here, by piety refin'd,
Sheds a bless'd radiance o'er my bright'ning mind;
From earth I travel upward to the sky;
I learn to live, to reign, yet more, to die.

Oh! I have tales to tell, of love divine---
Such blissful tidings! they shall soon be thine.
I long to tell thee, what, amaz'd, I see,
What habits, buildings, trades, and polity!
How art and nature vie to entertain,
In public shews, and mix delight with pain.

Oh! Zara, here, a story, like my own,
With mimic skill, in borrow'd names, was shewn;
An Indian chief, like me, by fraud betray'd,
And partner in his woes, an Indian maid.
I can't recall the scenes, 'tis pain too great,
And, if recall'd, should shudder to relate.
To write the wonders here, I strive in vain,
Each word wou'd ask a thousand to explain.
The time will come, O speed the ling'ring hour!
When Zara's charms shall lend description pow'r.
Farewell; thy prince still lives, and still is free;
Farewell; hope all things, and remember me.

The negro sovereign, penetrated with gratitude for the paternal attention shewn to his son by the earl of Halifax, sent presents of a considerable value to that nobleman, among which were two negro boys of the same age as the prince and his companion. These his lordship took particular care of, and provided for them in a very decent manner: the one being very fond of, and properly initiated in the culinary art, became his lordship's cook; the other attended him to Ire-

land at the time he was lord-lieutenant of that kingdom, when the office of serjeant-trumpet (a place for life) becoming vacant, his lordship presented it to his black. The former fell a martyr to excessive drinking. The latter was universally esteemed for his affability and politeness, and well known in London by the appellation of *The Gentleman Black*. He married a white woman of a considerable family, and some fortune, who broke her heart for the loss of him, and was buried in the same grave a few weeks after his interment. This person's name was Frederick Cudjoe. He attended his patron, Lord Halifax, in his dying moments.

The kingdom of Agonna is remarkable for being always governed by a woman, who, to preserve the sovereignty in her own hands, lives unmarried: but that she may not want a proper companion, she generally purchases one of the most handsome slaves she can meet with, who is prohibited, on pain of death, from ever intriguing with any other woman. Her eldest daughter is next heir to the crown, her sons being all sold as slaves, or otherwise disposed of, so as not to interrupt the succession in the female line. The daughter is taught the same political maxims practised by her mother, and, when of a proper age, is allowed the same indulgencies in having a male companion.

Aquamboe is situated chiefly within land, and is of considerable extent. The maritime part of it is called Acra, and was formerly a kingdom of itself; but it was conquered by the inhabitants of Aquamboe, to whom it has ever since been tributary.

Aquamboe is a good sporting country, and abounds with hares, rabbits, squirrels, red and fallow deer, wild goats, pintado hens, and other fowl. The hares are so plentiful, that the blacks kill them with sticks as they pass along on their ordinary occasions. Among the deer is one species that is exceeding beautiful, and, perhaps, the most delicate animal to be met with in the universe. It is about eight or nine inches in height, and the legs so small, as not to exceed the circumference of a goose's quill. The males have horns turning back on their heads, about three inches long, without branches or antlers; they are crooked, and of a shining black colour. They are very tame and familiar, but of so tender a nature, that they cannot bear the sea; for notwithstanding the attempt has been made several times, and every means made use of that could be thought of, no one was ever brought alive to Europe.

At Acra are two forts, one belonging to the English, the other to the Dutch. The former is called Fort James, the latter Fort Crevecoeur.

At a small distance from the Dutch fort is another called Christianburg, which belongs to the Danes, and is the only one they have on this coast.

The country of Acra is pleasant, but not fertile, owing to its being almost depopulated by the frequent wars with the Aquamboes. The European forts are chiefly supplied with provisions brought from Cape Coast, Anamaboe, and Cormantin. The trade carried on here consists chiefly of gold and slaves, which are more plentiful than in any other part of the Gold Coast. The goods the natives take in return for the slaves consist of cowries, woollen cloth, Silesia linen, red and yellow bugles, knives, fire arms, powder, chintz, &c.

SECTION III.

THE IVORY OR TOOTH COAST.

THIS coast, called by the natives Quaqua, (that word in their language signifying a tooth,) is bounded on the east by the Gold Coast, on the west by the Grain Coast, on the north by Negroland, and on the south by the Atlantic Ocean. Behind Cape Palmas, situated in 4 deg. 27 min. north lat. and 5 deg. 55 min. east long. is a bay where ships ride safely at anchor, being sheltered from the southerly winds.

The town of St. Andrew, situated on a river of that name, is a place of considerable trade. Its soil is fertile, and produces grain of different kinds, as well as variety of fruits.

The places most worthy of description on the Ivory Coast are the following.

Cape la Hou, or Laho, which produces elephants teeth of the largest size, and in the greatest abundance. The town is extensive, the soil fertile, and the natives are tolerably civil. Between two villages, called Jack-la-How and Corbi-la-How, is a track of the sea called by some the Bottomless Pit, many efforts having been made in vain by the natives to fathom it. At length, however, the bottom was found by the Europeans, and the depth appeared to be no more than sixteen fathom. Near Cape Apollonia, at the eastern extremity of the coast, are three villages, inhabited by some Negro natives, who carry on an occasional traffic with the Europeans.

Soil and Productions of the Country. Persons. Language. Religion. Manufactures. Trade of the Natives.

THE country of that part of Guinea called the Ivory Coast, is pleasant to the view, and fertile in soil, producing grain and vegetables in abundance. The natives are not sensible of the value of sugar-canes, and therefore only apply them to the purpose of feeding elephants, which are here very numerous. Indigo and cotton are said to grow without cultivation; and tobacco, under proper cultivation, would prove a profitable and useful article.

Oxen, goats, hogs, sheep, &c. abound here. A good ox is seldom sold for more than a few dozen of knives, and the inferior ones in proportion.

They have also great plenty of poultry, and variety of fish. Among the latter are frequently found three remarkable creatures, namely, the sea-ox, the zingana or hammer fish, and the sea-devil.

The sea-ox, or horned fish, is very long and thick. The skin is hard, rough, and without scales, and of variegated colours. The head resembles that of a hog, and it has a trunk like that of an elephant, which in the same manner receives its food. It has many peculiarities in its form, but the most singular is the extreme part of the tail, which is composed of a strong, thick fin, which serves as a defence. It has also other fins, which subserve the same purpose.

The zingana, or hammer fish, is a voracious creature, and likewise armed with fins, which greatly facilitate the seizure of its prey.

The sea-devil (so called from the ugliness of its form) surpasses all other creatures found in the sea. It has four eyes, and is about 25 feet in length, and 18 in breadth: on each side of it is an angular substance as hard as a horn, and very sharp: the tail is long and taper, and terminates with a dangerous point; the back is covered with small lumps about two inches high, and sharp at the ends: the head is large, but there is no appearance of any neck, and the mouth is furnished with a great number of sharp-pointed teeth: two of the eyes are near the throat, and are round and large, but the other two are placed above them, and much smaller: on each side the throat are three horns of an equal length, the middlemost of which is three feet long, and an inch and a half in diameter, but they are flexible, and therefore can do but little harm: the flesh of this creature is hard and ill-tasted, but the negroes catch them for the sake of the liver, from which they extract large quantities of oil.

The Quaqua blacks, or natives of the Ivory Coast, are tall, lusty, and well featured, and very honest in their dealings, particularly with the Europeans that visit this coast. When they go to trade with any ship, they take some water in their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes: this is a kind of oath, by which they intimate, that they would rather lose their eyesight than cheat those they trade with. They are no

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less averse to drunkenness than fraud; and though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they will not drink any palm-wine, but only a certain liquor called bordon, or tombo-wine, which is much weaker, and rendered still more so by being mixed with water.

Their dress is much the same as the inhabitants of the coasts in general. They file their teeth very sharp, but they are, in general, irregularly placed, and very crooked. They are fond of having long nails, and take particular pride in the length of their hair, which they plait and twist in different forms, and grease it with palm-oil mixed with red earth. With this composition they every day anoint their bodies, and continually chew betel, the juice of which they rub about their mouths and chins. They ornament their legs with a great number of iron rings, and in these consist their chief dignity, for the greater a man's quality is, the more rings he wears.

Their language is altogether unintelligible, and they speak hastily and by starts. When they meet each other they use the word *quaqua*, at the same time each laying one hand on the other's shoulder, and taking hold of the fore-finger, pull it till it snaps, when they again, in a low voice, repeat the word *quaqua*, which closes the salutation.

In religion they are all idolaters: and though there are several petty princes in different parts of the coast, yet the whole are subject to a king, called Soccoo, whom they not only respect but dread.

By the fundamental laws of this country every one is obliged to continue all his life in the condition in which he was born; so that, for instance, one whose father was a fisherman can never become any thing else but a fisherman; and so of all other trades and professions.

In some parts of the coast, particularly at Laho, they manufacture a pretty sort of cotton stuffs, striped blue and white, about three quarters broad, and three or four ells long. These are much valued, and sell for a good price in most parts of Guinea.

The natives are very fond of trade; but they are cautious in going on board European ships, lest they should be trepanned. In negotiation all is done by signs and gestures of the hands or fingers, and by setting a quantity of goods against the teeth they offer to dispose of.

Besides the articles of ivory, gold, and slaves, the Negroes here carry on a great trade in salt, which they sell to their neighbours, who carry it further into the inland countries, and dispose of it to great advantage, it being in those parts exceeding scarce.

The inland parts of this coast produce the largest and best elephants teeth to be found in the universe. The country is so full of elephants, that the inhabitants of the hilly parts are obliged to dig their houses in the backs of the mountains, and to make their doors and windows narrow and low, and are forced to use all kinds of artifices to drive them from their plantations, or lay snares for them, and kill them. The reason of ivory being so plentiful here is, because the elephants cast their teeth every three years; so that they find more loose teeth in the forests than they get from those they kill.

SECTION IV.

THE GRAIN COAST.

THE Grain Coast, which extends from Cape Tagrin upwards of 400 miles south-east of Cape Palmas, produces great quantities of pepper; but the chief articles of trade are slaves and ivory.

Though the climate of the Grain Coast is very unhealthy, owing to the periodical rains and winds, the soil is tolerably good, and, besides pepper, produces plenty of vegetables and roots, as also various kinds of fruits, particularly oranges, lemons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, and dates. Their cattle consists of cows, sheep,

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hogs, and goats; and they have a few horses, but they are very small, and of little use. There are also several kinds of wild beasts, as elephants, buffalos, tigers, apes of various sorts, and a great plenty of hares and deer. Their poultry consists of geese, turkeys, and ducks; with plenty of cocks and hens, the latter of which are esteemed as good in quality as those of Europe.

The natives of this coast, in person, are, in general, tall and well featured, and are said to be more liberal and honest in disposition than those of the adjacent coasts. Their dress, in point of distinction and form, is much the same; and they are equally fond of trinkets, and all sorts of ornaments. They are mostly abstemious in their diet, intemperance, in drinking especially, being severely punished by royal mandate.

Their sovereign is despotic, and he is never seen abroad, unless on particular occasions, and then he appears with the greatest pomp and magnificence.

The natives are Pagans; but some of them seem to entertain notions of a future state.

Their chief employment is husbandry; but there are some tolerable artificers among them. They purchase fire-arms, gunpowder, and bullets, of the Europeans; but darts, arrows, lances, and broad-swords, they make themselves. The carpenters make the canoes of various sizes with great neatness; and they also build their houses or huts, which are made of wood and clay, and thatched with reeds, or branches of the palmetto-tree.

Here are some of a mixed breed, called Mulattoes, who are an abandoned set of people, and have proceeded from the intermixture of Negroes and Europeans.

As the Europeans have no settlement on this part of Guinea, the trade here is carried on by signals from the ships, on the appearance of which the natives immediately go in their ships, carrying with them their pepper, ivory, &c.

Large ships go up the river Sherbro for about seven leagues from its mouth; but farther up it grows shallow, and is only navigable for canoes. The country round it is very mountainous, and the river has many turnings and windings, but the stream is not rapid, except at two or three cataracts or water-falls, one of which is exceeding large, and makes a prodigious noise, the water falling from the rocks upwards of twenty feet perpendicular. The Negroes that sail up this river, before they reach the cataract, are obliged to go ashore, and land their goods, which, with their canoes, they drag along the mountains till they have passed the cataract. The other two water-falls are trifling; notwithstanding which, they frequently have their canoes upset, especially when they are heavy laden: but as the camwood with which they are generally loaded, is very heavy, it sinks, and in the dry season they go and take it up, there being, at that time, hardly any water in the river. Their times of going up the river are in the latter end of the rainy seasons, which generally continue five months out of the twelve, when they cut the camwood, and search for elephants teeth.

Near the mouth of the river is a small island, called by the English Sherbro, and by the Dutch Massacoy. It is surrounded by rocks, and before it lies a large sand-bank, so lofty as to be discovered at a considerable distance from sea.

At York Island the English had once a factory, and a good fort, but they abandoned it about the year 1727.

In different parts of the coast are many pretty villages, among which is that where the king resides, called by the Dutch Konings-Dorps, situated about 12 miles up the river.

There is a large mountainous rock about eight miles below the river Sestos, on which grows a remarkable lofty tree. This place is called Sestre, or Sestos; and about four miles from it, farther to the east, a point juts out into the sea, near which, on the land, appears a great rock, white at the top, which at sea looks like a ship under sail: it is surrounded by large sand-banks, and is called by the Portuguese Cabo Baixos.

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The inhabitants of this country are, in general, very courteous to strangers; but they are idolaters, and practise some of the most superstitious maxims. Both sexes go almost naked, having only a small piece of cloth fastened round the waist. They live chiefly on fish, pulse, and fruits, and their usual drink is water. Many of them are employed in fishing, and the king has a certain duty out of what they catch. They also breed great numbers of cattle and poultry, which they turn to great advantage, by selling them to ships that frequent the coast.

Their method of salutation is by taking the fore-finger and thumb into their hands, putting them into a certain posture, and pulling them till they snap, when they say *aquio*, which signifies *your servant*.

They have but few ceremonies in their marriages. The wife who is first delivered of a boy is distinguished as the favourite or chief: but this distinction is sometimes attended with fatal consequences; for if the husband dies first, she is obliged to follow him, and be buried alive in the same grave.

A French traveller, who was once an eye-witness of this melancholy ceremony, has given the following particular description of it. "The captain (says he) or chief of the village, dying of a hard drinking-bout of brandy, the cries of his wives immediately spread the news through the town. All the women ran there, and howled like furies. The favourite wife distinguished herself by her grief, and not without cause. However, as several women in the same case have prudently thought fit to make their escape, the rest of the women, under pretence of comforting her, took care to watch her so closely, that there was no means of escaping. The relations of the deceased all came to pay their compliments, and take their farewell. After the marabut had examined the body, and declared he died a natural death, he, with his brethren, took the corpse, washed, dried, and rubbed it with fat from head to foot. After this they stretched it on a mat in the middle of the house. His wives were placed round it, and his favourite at the head, as the post of honour. Several other women made a circle round them. All these endeavoured to out-roar each other, tearing their hair, and scratching themselves methodically, like people who knew perfectly the part they acted. Sometimes they left off, and kept silent; at others they repeated the praise and great actions of the deceased, and then began their lamentations afresh. This mock music lasted near two hours, when four lusty Negroes entered the house, took the dead body and tied it on a hand barrow made of branches of trees, then lifting it on their shoulders, they carried it through the town, running as fast as they could, and reeling from time to time as if they had been drunk, with a thousand ridiculous gestures, very suitable to the exclamations of the wives of the deceased, and the other women who attended the procession. In short, the noise was so great as nearly to equal thunder. The parade being over, the body was taken from the hand-barrow, and deposited in its place; after which the songs, the cries, and extravagancies of the women began again. During this the marabut made a grave, deep and large enough to hold two bodies: he also stripped and skinned a goat: the pluck served to make a ragout, of which he and the assistants eat: he also caused the favourite wife to eat some, who had no great inclination to taste it, knowing it was to be her last. She ate some, however; and, during this repast, the body of the goat was divided into small pieces, broiled, and eaten. The lamentations began again; and when the marabut thought it was time to end the ceremony, he took the favourite wife by the arms, and delivered her to two lusty Negroes. These seizing her roughly, tied her hands and feet behind her, and laying her on her back, placed a piece of wood on her breast; then holding each other with their hands on their shoulders, they stamped with their feet on the piece of wood till they had broken the woman's breast. Having thus, at last, half dispatched her, they threw her into the

grave, with the remainder of the goat, casting her husband's body over her, and filling up the grave with earth and stones. Immediately the cries ceasing, a quick silence succeeded the noise, and every one retired home as quietly as if nothing had happened."

Cape Monte, situated about 25 leagues from the mouth of the river Sherbro, is called by the natives Wash Kingo, and, when first discovered at sea, appeared like a lofty island.

The chief cattle here are sheep, and they have some fowls that are exceeding large and good. They have likewise a great plenty of various sorts of fish, the catching of which is the chief employment of many of the inhabitants. There are also great numbers of wild beasts, as elephants, tigers, buffalos, harts, &c.

The men wear a white garment resembling a surplice; but the women have only a narrow piece of cloth fastened round the waist. Both sexes take great pains with their hair, or wool, which they twist into ringlets, and ornament the top of it with gold or precious stones. They also wear necklaces of several rows; and on their arms and wrists they have bracelets, as also above the ankles, where some hang bells of silver, the noise of which they are fond of when they divert themselves by dancing.

Their houses in general are mean buildings, but they are kept exceeding clean. Those belonging to the king and principal men are built long. Some of them are two stories high, with a vaulted roof of reeds or palm-leaves, so thick laid as to render rain, or the heat of the sun, absolutely impenetrable. At the entrance is the hall of audience, which is also their place of eating: here is a kind of sofa, made of earth or clay, about six feet in breadth, and raised above twelve inches from the ground: it is covered with fine mats made of grass or palm-leaves, and dyed of various colours. In this place the principal people spend the chief part of the day with their wives, and amuse themselves with smoking, talking, and drinking palm-wine. Adjoining to the audience-room is the bed-chamber, where they have an estrade or sofa, consisting of a number of mats laid one on the other, and surrounded with pagnes sewed together, or printed linen like curtains. Their kitchens are very neat, and situated at some distance from the dwelling-house.

The inhabitants in general of this place are more cleanly in eating their victuals than their neighbours. They use bowls made of hard wood, and basons of pewter or copper tinned, which they keep exceeding neat. When they roast their meat, they fasten it on a wooden spit; but as they have not the means of making it turn round, they first roast one side and then the other. A man may marry as many wives as he can keep; for which reason some of them have a great number; for the expence is very trifling, as they make them work so hard that each nearly earns her own maintenance. They seldom quarrel; but, in general, live very happy; and so little jealous are the men, that if their wives bestow favours on others, it does not give them the least concern. Their religion consists chiefly in reverencing and obeying their king: and they have such little notions of ambition, that each live happy in their own way, neither exulting at the downfall of the poor, or envying the prosperity of the rich.

He that from dust of worldly tumult flies,
May boldly open his undazzled eyes
To read wise nature's book, and, with delight,
Survey the plants by day, the stars by night.
We need not travel, seeking ways of bliss;
He that desires contentment cannot miss:
No garden walls this precious flow'r embrace,
It common grows in ev'ry desert place."

The Europeans that trade here buy many of their mats, which are of a bright yellow, and very beautiful; also great quantities of ivory. They likewise purchase the skins of lions, panthers, tigers, and other wild beasts;

beasts; as also a great number of slaves, which are brought here by the Munding merchants, from the inland parts of Africa. The forests yield plenty of woods fit for dying, particularly camwood, which the natives cut, and bring it to the shore in blocks of four or five feet in length. The Europeans, who buy a great deal of it, prefer it to Brasil-wood, thinking it much more solid and beautiful.

On the banks of a river called Rio Novo, near Cape Monte, are several villages, and the soil is very fertile, producing great quantities of rice and other grain, with various kinds of fruits, as oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, &c.

About ten leagues from Cape Monte, towards the south-east, is a prodigious hill called Cape Mensurado, though not quite so high as Cape Monte. It is round and very large, and almost surrounded with water. That part next the sea is very steep and high, but that to the land is more gentle and accessible.

To the west of Cape Mensurado are three villages, containing about twenty houses each. These houses are low, and divided into three apartments: they are built with sticks and clay, and are covered with straw. In one of them are generally lodged at least forty people, consisting of men, women, and children, of different families, all confusedly intermixed together. The people here are very civil and good-natured, and the women remarkably handsome. The men are naturally very indolent, and leave the principal part of business to be executed by their wives. They live very peaceably with their neighbours, and are not apprehensive of any enemy except the English, their fears of whom arose from two large vessels that once stopped there, the crews belonging to which ravaged the country, destroyed all their canoes, plundered their houses, and carried off some of the people for slaves; since which time they have ever been fearful of, and have retained an enmity to, most Europeans, but particularly the English.

Their chief articles of trade are palm-wine and rice, of which they have great quantities, and exceeding good in quality; in exchange for which they purchase cowries and small bars of iron.

The king's town is situated about eight miles up the river, and about a quarter of a mile from the side of it. It is surrounded with woods, and the entrance to it from the river is through a beautiful walk, shaded with lofty trees.

Besides their houses, they have buildings for holding their provisions, as rice, millet, palm-oil, brandy, and other necessaries. These buildings are made round, with a cornice, and are secured by padlocks, of which the husband keeps the keys, and distributes daily or weekly, such provision as he thinks necessary for his family. This does not give the least offence to his wives, who live amicably together, and spend their time in working abroad, or taking care of the children and other necessary business at home. The buildings belonging to each family are enclosed with a wall of earth, seven or eight feet high, and covered with reeds or palm-leaves, to secure them from the inclemency of the weather.

To the west of Cape Mensurado is a river called St. Paul, the entrance of which is about six feet deep, and is navigable, in calm weather, for vessels of a tolerable burthen.

To the south-east of the river St. Paul is a place called Sestre Cro, or Sestre Crue, where there is a large and beautiful village, inhabited by people remarkable for being honest in all their dealings, and preserving a more regular and prudent conduct than their neighbours.

About three miles beyond Sestre Cro is a small village called Wappo, in which there is a piece of fresh water that is exceeding good and wholesome. This place is known at sea by several high trees that appear upon a hill behind the shore, the tops of which, at a distance, seem of a red colour. Before this place is a

large rock, which, though actually on the shore, seems, as it were, separated from it.

Between this village and Cape Sestos are several others, the most considerable of which is Great Sestre, where there is a large basin of fresh water situated among a number of rocks. It does not, however, contain any thing else that is remarkable; and the rest of the villages are too inconsiderable to admit of any notice.

Countries adjoining to the Grain Coast. Description of the Hippotamus, or Sea Horse.

THESE countries are divided into several territories or kingdoms; the principal of which are Quilliga, Quoja, Flondo, Folgias, and the great empire of Manow.

Quilliga lies near a river called by the Portuguese Galinhas, and is a large territory subject to the king of Quoja.

Quoja is also a large kingdom, and inhabited by two distinct people, namely the Vey-Berkoma and Quoja-Berkoma, the former of which are the descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Cape Monte, who were once a populous and warlike people, but being conquered by the Quojas, and reduced to subjection, are now very insignificant, and few in number. In this kingdom are many handsome towns and villages, the chief of which are situated on the river Maguiba, which plentifully waters the whole country.

The most remarkable production of this country is the water elephant, of which great numbers are found in this river, and on its banks. When the natives catch them they present them to the king, who claims them as his particular property, but usually compliments the persons who bring them with a handsome present. This creature is properly called the hippotamus, or sea-horse. It is an animal that feeds upon grass, but frequently hides himself under water, where he continues for some time. When he raises his head from the water, he looks about to see if any danger is near, and can smell a man at a considerable distance. If any thing frightens him, he will immediately hide himself in the water, where he will continue for a considerable time before he again raises his head. As soon, however, as he appears, the hunter, who has patiently waited for the opportunity, levels his gun at his head, and, if the animal happens not to see him, it seldom misses doing the wished for execution. If he is killed, the colour of the water will discover where he lies, when they go with a boat, hooks, and cords, and drag him ashore. They then skin him, take out his bowels, and convey him away on a carriage; for his weight is very considerable, being, when full grown, from 2500 to 3000 lb.

This animal, in colour and shape, greatly resembles a rhinoceros, except the legs being somewhat shorter. The head is much like that of a common horse, but the mouth and nostrils are much larger. His ears and eyes are small, and his hoof is cloven like that of an ox; but his pastern being too weak to support the weight of the body, nature has taken care to supply this defect by placing too little hoofs about it, on which he rests in walking, and they leave on the ground the impression of four points. The body is very smooth, but the tail has hair on it, and is short like that of an elephant. The udder of the females hang between the hind legs like a cow, but it is very small in proportion to the bulk of the beast. The hide is about an inch thick, and so hard that it can scarcely be penetrated with a musket-ball, which is the reason that those who endeavour to catch them generally aim at the head. The most remarkable things about this animal are its tusks, which are four in number; they proceed from the lower jaw, and rise out of the mouth to a considerable length. They are as thick as the horn of an ox, and weigh about 10 lb. each. They are very white, and always retain their colour; for which reason they are much used by mathematical instrument-makers for scales, sectors, &c.

Besides

Besides these, he has in all forty-four teeth, viz. eight incisors, four in each jaw; four dog teeth, two on each side, which are all cylindrical; and thirty-two grinders, of which there are sixteen above, and the same number below. The flesh of this animal is exceeding good, and in some parts is sold at 6d. per pound. The fat is of equal value with the lean, being exceeding wholesome, and generally used instead of butter.

The sea horse delights in rivers where the water is good, and chooses those parts whose banks are well furnished with grass. They feed chiefly on fish, in pursuit of which they go several of them in a body. Their method is to plant themselves at the mouths of large rivers, by which they intercept all the fish that come down it. The negroes, who have huts near the rivers, are obliged to guard their fields day and night, otherwise these creatures would do considerable damage to their rice and corn, not only by eating it, but trampling it down with their feet.

There is another animal sometimes found in this river that greatly resembles the above. It is much of the same size, of a brown colour, with white streaks, a long neck, short body, small legs, and has horns like a bullock. They are only caught in the water; for though they are sometimes seen on the shore, yet they are so nimble that it is impossible for any beast to overtake them.

The territory of Hondo is divided into four principalities, the chiefs of which are appointed by the king of Quoja, to whom they pay annual tribute in presents of brass kettles, red cloth and salt.

The kingdom of Folgia, and empire of Manow are both very extensive, but the latter is the most considerable; and the Folgias are in the same manner subject to the emperor of Manow, as the Quojas are to the Folgias.

Among the birds found here is one called klofi-fow-kegboffi, which is reckoned an ominous bird by the blacks. When they are on a journey, and happen to see one of these birds, or hear it sing, they immediately return home, and if any one dies soon after, they say kegboffi killed him. This bird is about the size of a sparrow-hawk, and black feathered; and its usual food is pismires.

The inhabitants of these nations, particularly the Quogas, are in general good-tempered and very obliging to strangers; they are exceeding fond of spirituous liquors, particularly brandy; but they are so penurious that they will not purchase it, and therefore seldom have it unless given to them.

The fortified villages are called San Siah, and have a sort of bastions, through which they pass in and out of the villages by a gate so low and narrow as to admit only one person at a time. These villages are enclosed with pales fastened to the surrounding trees, so that nothing can be seen through the inclosure. At each of the gates is a hut, where a sentinel is constantly kept on guard; and when any danger is apprehended from an enemy, the people promiscuously retire to these villages, as a security both to their persons and property.

The Quoja blacks, between their harvests, employ themselves in fishing and hunting; but they must not follow the latter without permission from the king, who receives a moiety out of every thing they kill.

Both men and women are here subject to many diseases; but the most fatal is the bloody flux, which often carries off prodigious numbers in a very short time; and they attribute this affliction to the Sovah Monow, or forcerers. The beasts are also subject to several sorts of disorders not known in Europe. The chief of these is called the Ibatheba, which kills a great number of elephants, buffalos, wild boars and dogs.

Polygamy is here allowed, as in most other negro countries; and the first wife has always the pre-eminence. The husband maintains the boys, and the girls are taken care of by the wives.

Their ceremony of marriage consists chiefly in presents made by the parents of the parties to each other; but the ceremony of naming their children is very particular.

When a boy is to be named the father walks through the village armed with bows and arrows: he keeps continually singing, and as he passes along the inhabitants join him with instruments of music. As soon as the people are properly assembled they form a ring, when the person appointed to perform the ceremony taking the child from the mother lays it on a shield, and puts a bow into one hand and a quiver in the other. He then makes a long harangue to the people, after which he addresses himself to the infant, wishing he may be like his father, industrious, hospitable, and a good husbandman. He then names the child, and returns it to the mother, after which the company retire. The men go to hunt for game, and to gather palm-wine, which they bring to the house of the person belonging to the child, when the mother dresses the game with rice, and the evening is concluded with festivity and diversion.

When a girl is named, it is brought by the mother or nurse through the village, in the same manner as the boy is by the father, and when the people are assembled it is laid on a mat on the ground, with a small shaft in one hand. The person who is to name it then makes a long harangue, exhorting it to be a good house-wife and a good cook; to be cleanly, chaste, and a dutiful wife: that her husband may love her above all his other wives, and she attend him at hunting. Such wishes being concluded, he names the child, and then delivers it to the mother; after which the whole company disperse, except a few select friends, for whom an elegant entertainment is provided.

The king of Quoja is an absolute monarch, but his government is mild, and his councils are formed of the wisest and most experienced persons in the nation: however, he is jealous of his authority and prerogatives, and keeps a great number of concubines, most of whom are brought from the neighbouring countries.

When the king appears in public he sits or stands on a shield, to denote that he is the defender of the country, and the protector of his people.

In criminal cases, offenders sentenced to death are executed in some wood at a considerable distance from the village in which they resided. Here the criminal kneeling, with his head bent, the executioner thrusts a lance through his body, after which he cuts off his head with an axe or knife, and quarters him, delivering the limbs to his respective wives.

If a man is charged with theft, or perjury, and the evidence is not sufficiently clear, he takes the trial by belli, a composition made by the belli-mo, or priest, with the bark of a tree and herbs, which is laid on the person's hand: if it does not hurt him, he is supposed innocent; if otherwise, he is deemed guilty; in which case he is sentenced to death, and executed in the manner before-mentioned.

Many strange maxims prevail among the negroes of these nations; and to their superstitious notions may be added, the great faith they have in magicians and forcerers, as also a sort of men whom they call Munusin: these they believe can suck the blood from the body of either man or beast; at least they imagine that they can corrupt it in such a manner as to occasion lingering and painful diseases. There are also other enchanters called Pilli, whom they believe can prevent the growth of their rice.

LOWER GUINEA, or CONGO.

THIS large track, situate between the equinoctial line and 18 deg. south latitude, is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Benin; on the east by the inland parts of Africa; on the south by the kingdom of Mataman; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. As it contains four kingdoms, viz. Benguela, Angola, Congo Proper, and Loango, and each of these has its respective particulars, we shall treat of them distinctly.

SECTION I.

B E N G U E L A.

Situation. Extent. Rivers. Climate. Brief description of Benguela, the capital.

THIS kingdom is bounded on the north by Angola, on the south by Mataman, on the east by the Country of the Jaggas, and on the west by the Ocean. Its extent is about 430 miles from east to west, and 180 from north to south. The climate is so unwholesome, that the very provisions are affected by the noxious quality of the air, and the Europeans who reside here are striking spectacles of mortality.

The chief rivers of Benguela are, the Longo, the Nica, the Saint Francisco which runs through the middle of it, and the great river Cuneni, which runs from east to west.

Benguela, the capital of the kingdom, lies in 10 deg. 35 min. south lat. and gives its name to a province that extends about thirty miles along the coast. In this city the Portuguese have built a fort encompassed with pallisadoes and a ditch: the whole is surrounded with houses, and shaded with orange, lemon, banana, and other trees.

The Bay of Benguela, which lies to the south of the town, is about two leagues broad at the entrance, and deep enough for ships of burthen to anchor in.

Near the capital are several villages, the principal of which, called Manikafomba, is extensive and well inhabited.

At a village called Manikicongo, about 20 miles from the mouth of the Bay, the Portuguese have a storehouse for divers articles, which they sell to the natives: the chief of these are linens, cottons, fire-arms and gunpowder.

To the northward of a river called Caton-belle is another bay, which, from its convenience for anchorage, the Dutch call the Good Bay. The land here is low and fertile, and the natives breed great numbers of black cattle and hogs.

The inland parts abound in wild beasts, as lions, tygers, elephants, rhinoceroses and wild mules.

The greatest curiosity here is a remarkable animal peculiar to the country, called by the natives Abada. It is of the size of an half grown calf, very shy and swift of foot. It has two horns, one on the forehead, the other on the nape of the neck. When the animal is young the front horn is strait, but as it advances in age the horn bends gradually up like the tusk of an elephant. The natives hunt it for the sake of the front horn, which they esteem as an excellent antidote against poison. They look on the virtue of it to be greater or less according to the age of the animal when killed. The Portuguese, in order to know the goodness of it, make use of the following expedient. They set the horn upright on the ground, and suspend a naked sword over it point to point. If the horn be good and hard the point of the sword will not penetrate it, whereas, when the horn is soft and young the sword immediately sinks into it, which shews that it is not

arrived at its full perfection, and of course lessens its value. They also make a poultice of the pulverized bones of this creature mixed with water, which they say is a sovereign remedy against all aches and pains of the body, by drawing away the peccant humours not only from the part affected, but the whole mass of blood.

SECTION II.

A N G O L A.

THE Portuguese gave the name of Angola to this country in compliment to a prince of that name, who first usurped it from the king of Congo. It was called originally by the natives Dongo. It is bounded on the north by Congo Proper, on the south by Benguela, on the east by Matamba, and on the west by the Ocean.

The country is in general mountainous, and watered by several rivers, the chief of which are the Danda and Coanza. These rivers are stored with most kinds of fish, but it is dangerous to catch them on account of the crocodiles. The Portuguese have a fort at a place called Cambamba, upon the river Canza. The provinces of which this kingdom is composed we shall describe in the following order:

Chissama is divided into three parts, each of which is under the direction of a governor deputed by the king. The country is mountainous and poorly cultivated: it is famous, however, for producing a peculiar salt made by the natives from a briny kind of water which they dig for, and being formed into a mass they make cakes of it, which they exchange with the Portuguese for meal, oil and other commodities. The merchants derive considerable advantages from exporting this salt to most parts of Ethiopia, as it is not only excellent for food, but also in physic, being a very pleasant diuretic.

The province of Sumbi is, for the most part, flat. The natives, though tall and strong, are, in general, indolent, and, of course, neglect the cultivation of the land, which, wherever industry prevails, proves fruitful, and produces several sorts of excellent grain.

The province of Rimba is divided into many districts under as many governors. The land is fertile, and the rivers abound with fish. The inhabitants are idolaters, but of a tractable and industrious disposition.

Scetta is one of the most rocky and mountainous provinces in all the kingdom, particularly on one side of it, where a ridge of perpendicular rocks covers a space of thirty miles in length without interruption. The surface of these rocks, however, is well inhabited and cultivated, enjoys a serene and wholesome air, and is plentifully supplied with fresh water. The low lands are well watered, and produce excellent pasture for cattle, great numbers of which are bred by the inhabitants; but they often sustain considerable loss from the number of wild beast that infest this part of the country. The torrents that flow from the hills bring with them great quantities of iron ore, which the inhabitants gather carefully by laying straw and other such materials across the streams to receive it; and afterwards, by dint of fire, convert it into excellent iron. In this country are also found great quantities of a kind of transparent ore, which the natives call Tare, and when wrought is, in appearance, much superior to iron.

Bembea extends itself on one side along the sea, and on the other divides the kingdom of Angola from other nations on the south. The country is populous, and abounds with small cattle, with the hides of which the natives

natives make their garments, and they anoint their heads and bodies with the fat. These people are much more savage than their neighbours, are almost all idolaters, and have a language peculiar to themselves. They are very artful, and use a singular stratagem in war, which is to drive great numbers of cattle towards that side on which the enemy is expected, whilst they secrete themselves at a small distance, either by laying flat on their bellies in the high grass, or among the heath or copses. The cattle seldom fail of exciting the enemy to advance in order to make a capture, when they suddenly rise, and furiously fall on them with their armed clubs. This scheme is generally attended with success, the enemy soon surrendering, when their conquerors sell them for slaves to the Europeans.

The province of Temba is divided into twelve lordships, whose chiefs, though under the protection of the Portuguese, live free and independent, being only obliged to furnish them with a certain number of militia in cases of emergency. The whole country abounds with wild cows and mules, which the inhabitants hunt and kill for food. It also produces several excellent roots, among which one in particular resembles parsnips, but is much finer in taste, and is said not only to attenuate phlegm, but to be almost an admirable purifier of the blood.

Oacco is beautifully variegated with hills and plains, and so well watered with rivers and springs, that it is one of the most delightful provinces in the kingdom. These advantages, however, are of little use to the natives, as they are restrained by the lords from cultivating any more of the land than what is absolutely necessary to produce provisions for their families. The chief governor of this province has twenty others under him, whose principal business is to discipline and exercise the militia; for which reason this is one of the most formidable provinces in the whole kingdom.

A distemper peculiar to the climate of this part of the country prevails here; it generally begins with a violent head-ach and vertigo, and is followed by convulsions, which soon reduce the patient to a mere skeleton. The medicine for this disease is made from a plant something like our hyssop, which they pulverize, and drink the infusion; they also extract an oil from it, with which they anoint the parts convulsed.

They are likewise subject to a kind of swelling, that begins at the mouth, and spreads itself all over the neck, which often swells to the bigness of the head, causes excessive pain, and is frequently attended with suffocation. It is generally cured by anointing the parts with the oil extracted from the above-mentioned plant.

There is a very singular insect in this province, somewhat like our horse-flies, whose sting is so dangerous, that if a quantity of blood be not immediately drawn from the parts affected, the person is thrown into a violent fever, attended with excessive tortures, that commonly end in a total delirium, and, if not speedily relieved, in convulsive death. The most remarkable circumstance attending this is, that when a person is cured, he seldom fails of a relapse, owing merely to the bare remembrance of what he felt during the time he was affected; and some of them undergo such excessive torture, that they close their miseries by putting an end to their existence.

When the poor idolaters happen to be stung by these insects, they have recourse to their priests, who seek out for an insect of the same kind, which having found, they dig a hole in the earth and put it in, adding sundry fumigations, exorcisms, and superstitions, known only to themselves; after which they fill the hole with water, and replenish it as that sinks, stirring it, and letting the earth settle again several times: at length, without staying till it is quite clear, and divested of its disagreeable earthy taste, they give the patient plenty of it to drink: this occasions a violent fit of vomiting, by which so great a part of the poison is thrown out, that the natural strength of the patient enables him to get rid

of what is left behind. Many, however, who are cured by this strange method, are some time after seized with pains and convulsions in their nerves, which frequently end in a settled lameness, and sometimes in a dead palsy. Though this method is altogether superstitious, yet, from its being sometimes effectual, the Europeans, unable to bear the excessive pain arising from the sting, have recourse to it.

The province of Cabezzo is very populous and fertile, producing not only abundance of cattle, but also most kinds of provisions. In one part of it is a high hill called the Iron Mountain, from its yielding great quantities of that metal, which the Portuguese have taught the natives to purify, and work into various kinds of instruments. In this province are many large and lofty trees, particularly palm and cocoa trees. There is also one sort that greatly resembles our apple trees, the bark of which being cut with a knife, yields an odoriferous juice, of the colour and consistency of honey. It is very useful in medicine, but being of a hot nature, it must be first qualified by some cooling drug.

The Portuguese have taken great pains to propagate the Roman Catholic religion in this province, and not without success, for there are less idolaters in it than in any other in the kingdom.

Lubolo is situated on the southern banks of the river Coanza. Its climate is very wholesome, and its soil remarkably fertile, producing great plenty of all sorts of provisions. It is chiefly noted for its excellent palm trees, which produce better wine, oil, and timber, than is to be met with in all the other parts of the kingdom. The greater part of the people of this province are Christians, and tributary to the Portuguese.

The province of Loanda is situated in 8 deg. 30 min. south lat. and 13 deg. 6 min. east longitude. It is one of the most considerable places belonging to the Portuguese settlements on this side Africa, and remarkable for having in it the capital of the whole kingdom of Angola. It is a large city, pleasantly situated on the declivity of a hill near the sea coast, and strongly defended by a spacious fortress, in which is a church dedicated to St. Amaro, and a convent of Sestertians, besides several bulwarks that serve to guard the entrance of the port. It is very populous, and greatly resorted to, not only on account of its being the residence of the Portuguese governor, but also for its containing the chief courts of judicature for the whole kingdom. The churches and other public buildings are sumptuous, as are all those of the merchants and officers, both spiritual and temporal. The streets are strait, wide, and regular, and are always kept exceeding clean. The houses belonging to the Portuguese are built of stone, and most of them very elegantly furnished; but those of the natives are very mean, being built only of earth, and thatched with straw.

In the center of the city is a large convent belonging to the jesuits, who are here held in the highest esteem. It is a stately edifice, and endowed with a considerable revenue. On one side of it is an hospital, called the Misericordia, which has twenty-four wards or rooms for patients, besides convenient apartments for the directors, physician, surgeon, apothecary, and other attendants. On the other side of the convent is a church belonging to the fraternity of St. John the Baptist. At a small distance from these three buildings is the cathedral, which is a large, stately structure, dedicated to Our Lady of the Conception, under which is another dedicated to the Holy Sacrament. There are also many monasteries and chapels belonging to the capuchins, carmelites, and friars, which, with other parochial churches, so surround the city, as to answer the end of walls and fortifications.

In the city are kept prodigious numbers of slaves, who are employed in tilling the ground, carrying of burthens, and fetching water from springs in an adjacent island called Loanda, the city not having the convenience of being watered by any kind of river. The country round it, however, is very fertile, well cultivated,

vated, and beautifully variegated with villas, gardens, and a variety of fruit-trees.

The Island of Loanda is situated about half a mile from the city; it is very disproportionate in its form, being fifteen miles long, and only one broad. The Portuguese have many houses on it, as also a great number of gardens, which they keep well stocked with most sorts of fruit-trees and vegetables. They have also on this island several handsome churches; besides which there is a spacious convent belonging to the jesuits.

The city is well supplied with most kinds of provisions, particularly mutton and pork, the latter of which is greatly esteemed by the Europeans. They have also plenty of fish, which are caught on the coasts of the Island of Loanda. The bread used by the Europeans is made of millet and Indian wheat; but that used by the natives is made from the meal of the manioc root. The latter also prefer dogs flesh to any other, for which reason numbers of those animals are fattened up, slaughtered, and exposed at the public shambles.

Small payments here are made either in zimbis (the shells of a small fish) or else beads, the latter of which are of various sizes, colours, and fashions, and are worn by some of the natives as ornaments to their arms, necks, and wrists. Larger payments are made with pieces of cloth of their own manufacture, of a stated length and breadth; and where the sum is considerable it is usually paid in slaves.

Benga, or Bengo, is situated on a river of the same name. It is a fertile country, and produces great plenty of maize and millet, as also a prodigious number of banana and bacova trees. The province is divided into many districts, the chiefs of which are natives, though tributary to the Portuguese. Here are eight churches, three of which are called Parishes, and one of them belongs to the jesuits, who celebrate their festivals in it with the greatest pomp and magnificence.

The province of Danda is situated to the north of Bengo. This province is well watered, very fertile, and produces plenty of grain, with various kinds of fruits; but it is greatly infested with crocodiles and large serpents, which harbour in the river Bengo. The inhabitants are mostly Christians, for which reason here are several churches regularly served by secular priests. The chief of these are situated at the mouth of the Danda; and at some distance from it is another, as also several chapels and oratories, all of which belong to the jesuits, who take great pains in endeavouring to bring over the unconverted to a sense of Christianity.

Moseche is situated on the northern banks of the river Coanza. The soil is very fertile, and, besides grain, is remarkable for producing the manioc root, which is so plentiful, that large quantities of it are annually sent to the city of Loanda.

In this province are mines of several metals, particularly in the government of Cambamba. What is very remarkable, each mine tinges the complexion of the inhabitants who live in that territory; for though they are all naturally black, yet those near the silver mines differ in their complexion from those that live near the mines of gold and lead, which cannot be otherwise accounted for than from the effluvia that exhales from the different metals.

Illamba is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Higher and Lower. The former is situated between the rivers Bengo and Calucata; and the latter between the Danda on the north, and the Bengo on the south. They are both very fertile; and the natives, who are chiefly Christians, pay a tribute to the Portuguese.

The Higher Illamba has mines of excellent iron, and is almost covered with small hills. In the center of it is a large mountain, from the summit and sides of which flow a prodigious number of springs and rivulets of clear and wholesome water, which is not only exceeding good to drink, but of infinite service in contributing to fertilize that part of the country. This province pays a

considerable tribute to the king of Portugal, and the governor of it is obliged to maintain a numerous militia for his service.

Oarii is situated on the northern banks of the river Coanza, and adjoins to the province of Moseche. It is watered by a great number of small rivers that fall into the Coanza, but which, in the time of the great rains, become large, rapid, and dangerous. In this province are two fortresses belonging to the Portuguese, at each of which they keep a strong garrison.

Embacca, or Membacca, is situated on the north side of the river Lucala, and between that and the Higher Illamba. It is wholly subject to the Portuguese; for though the lord who governs it assumes a claim to a kind of independency, yet it is granted him only on condition that he shall maintain, at his own expence, a numerous militia for their service. These troops, though idolaters, are stout, warlike, and well disciplined, and never betray any fear of death when they engage an enemy; for which reason the Portuguese value them above all the rest in the kingdom.

The trade carried on in this kingdom, by the Portuguese and other Europeans, consists chiefly in purchasing slaves; and, indeed, it was this inhuman commerce that first invited the Portuguese to this part of Africa. The commodities brought in exchange are broad cloths, crimson and other silks, velvets, cambrics, Hollands of all sorts, gold and silver lace, broad and narrow striped tickings, black serges, Turkey carpets, threads and silks of all sorts and colours, Canary and other wines, brandy and other spirituous liquors, oil, spices of all sorts, loaf sugar, knives, fishing-hooks, pins, needles, small bells, variety of other trinkets and baubles, glass beads of all sizes and colours, rings of the same, or other materials, fire-arms, swords, cutlasses, and other weapons.

The people of each of these provinces are divided into four different classes. The first is that of Macotas, who are a kind of noblemen. The second consists of those stiled the Children of the Dominion, who are the original natives of the country, of either sex, whether merchants, artificers, or husbandmen. The third is that of the Quisicos, or slaves, who are the property and inheritance of the lords of that province, which devolves, like all other real estates, to their heirs and successors. And the last is the Mabicas, who are the slaves either taken in war, purchased, or condemned to forfeit their freedom for some crime or misdemeanor.

The king of Angola acknowledges no subjection to the king of Congo: he is entirely independent, and, from the protection he receives from the Portuguese, preserves an absolute authority. When his troops engage an enemy, they divide themselves into three bodies, at certain distances from each other. In the center one is the general, who directs all their motions by the sound of several warlike instruments. They then move forwards, retire, or wheel about, as those direct, and fall on the enemy with great fury, making at the same time a most hideous noise. If they find themselves likely to be disconcerted, they take flight, (for they are great cowards,) nor is it possible for their general to rally them; so that the fate of a battle depends on the success of the first onset.

Their musical instruments used in war are of several kinds and sizes. One of the loudest of them somewhat resembles the drum. Another an inverted pyramid, with the point fixed on the ground. The third sort is made of elephants teeth: they are of various sizes, and, in their form, somewhat resemble our German flutes.

The dress of the military officers is very grand, and they appear much taller than they really are, as well as more terrible, by the length and variety of ostrich, peacock, and other feathers with which they ornament their caps. About their necks they wear several links of iron chain, to which are fastened great quantities of rings, that make a loud jingle at every motion. For the same purpose also they hang a number of bells about their middle, the noise of which they suppose animates the soldiers.

soldiers to fight with more ardour, and at the same time gives them a greater air of pomp and grandeur. They wear buskins on their legs after the manner of the Portuguese. Their weapons are the bow, sword, target, and dagger. Those, however, who carry the bow are not allowed to wear the target, but only the sword and dagger.

The common soldiers, who go naked from the waist upwards, fight with bow and dagger, and in their girdles they wear large crooked knives. Some of them use broad swords, muskets, and pistols, which they purchase of the Portuguese.

The language of the people of Angola and Congo is radically the same; but the dialects of the different provinces differ so essentially in pronunciation, that it is difficult for those born in places remote from each other to converse together.

The remaining particulars we have to mention of this kingdom are relative to the mountains, of which there is a remarkable ridge extending itself north-east from Cape Negro. Some of these, on account of their prodigious height and coldness, are called by the Portuguese *Monti Freddi*; and some others, which are still higher, they call *Monti Nevosi*, on account of their snowy tops, the waters of which, falling in great plenty during the summer season, form a considerable lake below. But the most considerable one of all is that called *Cambambo*, on which there is a mine that produces excellent silver. The Portuguese have long since made themselves masters of this place, and, in order to secure it, have built a very strong fortress.

SECTION III.

CONGO PROPER.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Rivers. Climate. Productions in general.

CONGO Proper is situated between the 2d and 11th degree of south latitude, and between the 32d and 41st degree of east longitude, extending in length, from north to south, 540 miles, and in breadth, from east to west, about 420 miles. It is bounded on the east by the kingdoms of Makoko and Matamba, on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by the river Zaire, and on the south by Angola, from which it is separated by the river Dande.

It is watered by many rivers, the chief of which is the Zaire, navigable for ships of burthen about 70 miles up the country. From this river run several small ones, which not only water the country, but are also very convenient for the merchants and other inhabitants, who can go in canoes from one village to another. In the course of this river are several small islands, the inhabitants of which are under the government of lords appointed by the king of Congo. The principal of these are two, situated near the mouth of the river, and called *Bommo* and *Quintella*, the first of which is remarkable for having many mines of iron. Though these islands are all inhabited, yet there is not a house to be seen, the ground being so low and marshy, that it is almost constantly under water; for which reason the Negroes live chiefly in their canoes, or under trees, round which they build their huts, raised several feet above the ground. These islanders are a strong and resolute people, but they are very unpolished in their manners. They have no marriage, or betrothing, but from their youth form such alliances as their inclinations direct, without any ceremony. They are under the government of particular chiefs and officers, who are chosen by a majority of voices.

The Island of *Quintella* is remarkable for having an idol which no one dare approach but the persons appointed to attend, and secure the way to it from being discovered. To effect this they are themselves obliged, as often as they go thither, to take such a path as they think no other person can find out. Many persons,

particularly in cases of sickness, make rich offerings to this idol, all which are totally destroyed; for as soon as they are dedicated, the person attending conveys them to the idol, which is placed on a large plain, surrounded with a wall made of elephants teeth, where they are hung on poles, and there left till time has entirely destroyed them.

The river Zaire receives its water from three lakes; the first of which is the Zambre, the second the Zaire, and the third a great lake from whence the Nile is supposed to have its source. The Zambre, however, is the most considerable, being, as it were, the center from whence proceeds all the rivers in this part of Africa. The other rivers in this kingdom are inconsiderable.

The kingdom of Congo is divided into six provinces, the situations of which, together with their names and titles, are as follow. Along the coast, the county or earldom of Songo, and the great duchy of Bamba. To the north-east, the duchy of Sundi, and the marquissate of Pango. Eastward, the duchy of Bala. In the middle, the marquissate of Pemba. To these provinces must be added the territories or lordships of Amalaca, Dambi Ambuila, Dembo Quingengo, Dembo Angona, the little duchy of Ovando, and the territory of Sova Cavanga. These districts, however, are so very trifling, that they do not merit any particular notice; and with respect to the provinces themselves, which form the kingdom of Congo, we shall leave the particulars of them till we have taken a general view of the country.

The climate of Congo is much less sultry than might naturally be expected from its situation, it being so near the equator. Their winter months are April, May, June, July, and August; during which they have almost continual rains, whereby the rivers are so swelled as to overflow the principal part of the country. The winds in winter blow from north to west, and from north to north-east. These winds drive the clouds towards the mountains, where being gathered and compressed, they at length condense into water. In the summer the winds blow from the south to the south-east, and as they clear the southern skies, so they drive the rain into the northern regions. These winds are of infinite service in cooling the air, the heat of which would otherwise be insupportable.

There are mines of several metals, particularly iron and copper, in this kingdom. In the mountainous parts are large quarries, that produce not only excellent stone, but also porphyry, jasper, and marble of various colours.

The soil of this country is fertile, and produces several sorts of grain, particularly rice and maize. They have also great plenty of a grain called *lukko*, which in its form resembles mustard-seed, but when ground, produces flour little inferior to that from wheat. The manioc root is likewise cultivated here, and much admired by the Portuguese, who, instead of making it into bread, bruise it very small, and either eat it raw, or else boil it in broth.

Various sorts of vegetables are cultivated with very little labour. Among these are turnips, cabbages, potatoes, radishes, cauliflowers, carrots, and spinach, besides others not known in Europe. They have also several useful herbs, as hyssop, thyme, sweet marjoram, balm, sage, mint, &c.

Here is great variety of fruits, among which are oranges, lemons, citrons, guavas, ananas, bananas, pumpions, melons, dates, and the kola fruit. The last of these is about the size of a pine-apple, and the fruit, which is enclosed within a thin husk, tastes much like chestnuts. It is not only valued for being pleasant to eat, but for its great efficacy in removing any disorder that particularly affects the liver.

There are several sorts of trees here that are distinguished for having medicinal qualities; among these is one called *Angaria*, the root of which, boiled in water, is an infallible remedy for violent pains in the sides.

The khifekka is another tree of a medicinal virtue, any part of which being reduced to powder, and mixed with water is good against fevers; and, in cases of fainting, if applied either to the forehead or temples, is equally efficacious as hartshorn.

The jakassa tree grows very tall, is of a red colour, and has the virtue of curing the tooth-ach and sore gums; but it is very pernicious to birds, for if they once settle on its boughs, they soon fall dead to the ground.

There is likewise a tree which bears a fruit resembling a lemon. This very singular production of nature, called mignamigna, possesses two opposite occult qualities in the most eminent degree, being at once a deadly poison and powerful antidote. If a person is infected by the fruit, the leaves are a certain cure; if by the leaves, the fruit has the same effect; and the wood is deemed both as pernicious and efficacious as either.

The wild animals are, elephants, lions, tigers, leopards, buffaloes, bears, wolves, large wild cats, camelions, apes, monkeys, &c. The tame animals are, oxen, cows, sheep, goats and hogs; besides which they have great plenty of stags, fallow deer, roebucks, hares and rabbits. Poultry is very plentiful, particularly cocks, hens, geese and ducks. They have also abundance of wild fowl, as partridges, pheasants, woodcocks, pigeons, doves, hens, &c.

There are great numbers of parrots, most of which are very large, and either of a grey or green colour; but there is one species exceeding small, not being larger than sparrows, and their feathers are beautifully variegated. The most admired among the small birds are those called Birds of Music; they are about the size of a canary bird, but they greatly differ in the colour of their feathers; some are all red, and others green, with their feet and bills only black; some again are all white, grey, dun or black. These last have the most agreeable note, and are kept in cages by the better sort of people, merely for the sake of their song.

The reptiles here are scorpions, millipedes, vipers, snakes and serpents. Among the snakes there is one species so amazing large, that it is said it will swallow a whole sheep. It is called the Great Water Adder, from its being chiefly found in the rivers. It goes, however, on land in search of prey, and climbs the trees, where it lies in wait for the cattle that come to pasture. As soon as a sheep or hog arrives near the tree the snake immediately descends, and winding its tail round the hinder parts of the animal, secures it from moving, when he kills and devours it. When he has gorged his prey, he becomes for some time stupid, but as soon as he recovers, he immediately makes for the water, where he continues till necessity obliges him to seek for farther subsistence.

The seas and rivers abound with a great variety of fish; among others in the former are prodigious quantities of sardinias and anchovies; and in the latter are plenty of sturgeons, soles, barbel, trout, tench, and other excellent fish. They have also several kinds of shell-fish, as oysters, muscles, cockles, and large crabs, which are generally found at the mouths of the rivers.

Complexion. Form. Dispositions. Dress. Divers modes of travelling. Buildings. Domestic utensils. Food. Diversions. Marriages. Abstinence. Funeral ceremonies of the natives of Congo. Their religion, and the baptism of a king.

THE complexion of the original natives is generally black, but since they have intermixed with the Portuguese, many are of an olive colour. Some are tall and robust, but they are mostly of a middling stature. They have all black, curling hair, but their noses are not so flat, neither are their lips so thick as those of the negroes in general.

In their dispositions they are proud and haughty among themselves, but to strangers they are very at-

fable and courteous. They have a natural propensity to theft, and whatever they get, either by stealing or otherwise, they spend in liquors, of which they are very fond, and frequently drink to the greatest excess. They have naturally a ready turn of wit, and, when sober, will converse with great circumspection. They are, however, very revengeful, and whenever they think themselves offended, nothing will satisfy them but destroying the object of their resentment, which they generally effect by poison.

The dress of the common people consists of a loose garment that reaches from the middle to the ancles, and some have the bottom ornamented with a fringe. It is fastened round the waist with a kind of string made of leaves. Some use girdles made of bulrushes or palm leaves, which they plait together. They have a cap on their heads made to fit close, and generally carry some weapon in their hands. The upper part of the body is bare in both sexes, and their arms and legs are ornamented with brass, copper, or iron bracelets. The garment of the better sort is made of cloth or serge, under which they have a white shirt. The garments of the women are much shorter than those of the men.

When the great men travel they are carried in hammocks made either of net-work or strong stuffs, the manner of which is thus: the hammock is fastened to a long pole about a foot from each end; and when the person has got into the hammock, two men, one before and the other behind, take up the pole, and lay it on their shoulders, carrying the person in this manner a considerable way without resting. When they go long journies they have four men, who relieve each other, in doing which they are so expert that they never stop, but shift as they walk, at the same time keeping their usual pace. This is a very easy method of travelling, the person sitting or lying in the hammock as he thinks proper; and they have sometimes a piece of callico thrown over the pole to shelter them from the heat of the sun.

Another method of travelling used here is thus: instead of a hammock they fasten two ropes to the pole, one of which is much shorter than the other; they are each tied in two parts, and hang like swings; in the former the person sits, and at the bottom of the latter is a square piece of board, on which he rests his feet. The person carried generally holds an umbrella in his hand to shelter him from the heat of the sun, or the inclemency of the weather. The reason of their travelling in this manner is from their want of horses, there not being any of those animals in the whole kingdom.

They form little towns or villages by erecting several houses together in the midst of an inclosure. These buildings are made of wood, and covered with the branches of trees: each house is divided into several apartments, the innermost of which is adapted for the women: they are all on the ground floor, and without windows, the only light they have being admitted at the door, which is so small that they are obliged to stoop when they pass it. The inclosures of the houses are formed by trees, which grow so close together that they not only serve as a fence, but also to keep off the violent heat of the sun.

Their necessary utensils are pots, kettles, calabashes to hold their provisions, a mill to grind their corn, a hatchet to fell timber, and some instruments of agriculture. Some of them have beds made of coarse cloth stuffed with straw, or the leaves of trees, but the generality lie upon loose straw spread on the ground.

The food of the common people consists principally of rice, fish, potatoes, and other roots; but the better sort live chiefly on flesh and fowl. Their common drink is water, and sometimes they regale themselves with palm wine, or brandy mixed with water.

The natives who reside near towns live chiefly by trade: but in the country parts they are principally employed in agriculture, and keeping cattle. About

the river Zaire some of them subsist by fishing, some by drawing palm wine, and others by weaving.

Being very fond of festivity and diversion, in most villages the people assemble every evening at some open place, where they form a ring, in the center of which is placed a large wooden platter full of provisions. The eldest of the company, who is called Makuluntu, gives to each his portion, which he divides with such exactness, that no person has the least reason to complain. They do not make use either of cups or glasses, but only a large flask, which, when any one wants to drink, the makuluntu holds to the person's mouth; and when he thinks he has drank enough, he takes the flask away. It is remarkable, that if any strangers happen to come by at the time of these festivities, they are equally welcome to participate with the rest of the guests, and always take their place in the ring, without being asked either who they are, or from whence they came.

• They also make feasts on several particular occasions, such as gaining a law-suit, a marriage, the birth of a child, or any singular advancement in life. At these feasts they dance, and sing love-songs, which are attended with a variety of musical instruments, consisting of flutes, pipes, ivory trumpets, and drums, the latter of which are made of thin wood, and covered with the skin of a beast.

The marriages of the natives of Congo, who have been converted by the Portuguese to the Romish religion, are celebrated according to the rites of that church; but the generality of them preserve their ancient idolatrous maxims, are married by their own priests, and have a number of wives, each taking as many as he thinks himself able to maintain.

A man who is detected in having a criminal intercourse with another's wife, is obliged, as a compensation for the injury, to give the value of a slave to the husband; but the woman receives no other punishment than asking pardon of her husband for the offence she has committed. Those who are detected in cohabiting together without the ceremonies of marriage are punished with a fine, which is levied in proportion to the circumstances of the offenders.

The Pagan priests here lay certain injunctions on young people, such as obliging them to abstain from eating either some sorts of poultry, the flesh of certain beasts, fruits of different kinds, roots either raw or boiled after this or that manner, with the like ridiculous obligations, which they call kejilla. These rules are as inviolably kept as they are strictly enjoined. They would sooner fast till they perished, than taste the least bit of what has been forbidden; for they think that if they commit the least trespass against the kejilla, they shall certainly die in a very short time. The prepossession of their minds on this head is evident from the following story mentioned by Merolla in his voyage to Congo. "A young black (says he) upon his journey, who had received the kejilla, coming to a friend's house at night, his host next morning had for breakfast a wild fowl, which is much better than a tame one. The guest hereupon demanded if it was a wild hen, and being answered in the negative, he sat down and eat very heartily. Four years after, these two meeting together again, the country black asked his friend, who was not yet married, if he would eat a wild hen? The young man answering that he had received the kejilla, and therefore could not, the other laughed, and asked what made him refuse it now, when he had eaten it at his table so many years before? At hearing this the other began to tremble, and, by the effects of imagination, died in less than 24 hours."

When the corpse of any great person is to be interred, they spread the way with leaves and branches of trees. He must likewise be carried in a straight line to the grave; so that if any house or wall happens to interrupt the passage, it must be immediately pulled down. On these occasions several slaves were formerly sacrificed to serve their master in the other world; but since the Portuguese have worked a reformation among the most dis-

tinguished part of these deluded people, that practice has been entirely laid aside, and only preserved by those who still strictly adhere to their original Pagan maxims. These, however, are obliged to do it by stealth; for should it be known, they would not only be rebuked, but severely punished by those of superior power, who are strong advocates for the Romish persuasion.

The Portuguese have taken great pains to introduce and establish their religion in this country. The reformation was brought about in the reign of Don John the Fourth, by means of a naval commander of rank, called Diego Cam, who, desirous of discovering the coast of Africa, in the course of his voyage came to anchor in the mouth of the river Zaire. Pleased with his reception by the natives, he took five of them home with him, and presented them to his majesty at the court of Lisbon. Having acquired some knowledge of the Portuguese language during the voyage, they ingratiated themselves so far with the king, by the pertinent answers they made to the questions he put to them, that he ordered Cam to take them back to their own country, and to use his utmost endeavours to make a convert of the African king to the Romish church. The attempt succeeded: the king became a convert, erected a magnificent church, and was himself baptized in the most public manner; as were his queen and court soon after.

Description of the City of St. Salvadore. The King's Splendor and Magnificence. Revenues. Armament. Civil Administration and Traffic.

THIS city is situated upon a very high hill, mostly of solid rock, on the top of which is a plain about 10 miles in circumference, which commands a most extensive and delightful prospect, and is beautifully shaded with a great variety of fruit trees, as palm, tamarind, plantain, kola, lemon, and orange trees. The air is also exceeding wholesome. The hill has some iron mines, which are of singular use to the inhabitants, who fabricate it into weapons and instruments of agriculture. From these, and other conveniencies, it is little to be wondered at that the Congo monarchs should have made this spot their usual place of residence. The king's palace is a very spacious and beautiful structure.

The most considerable buildings in the city, exclusive of the palace, are 12 churches, of which one is the cathedral; a college belonging to the jesuits, where four of them are constantly employed in teaching the Latin and Portuguese, and in catechising the people; and, lastly, the Portuguese fort, which is a strong and spacious edifice.

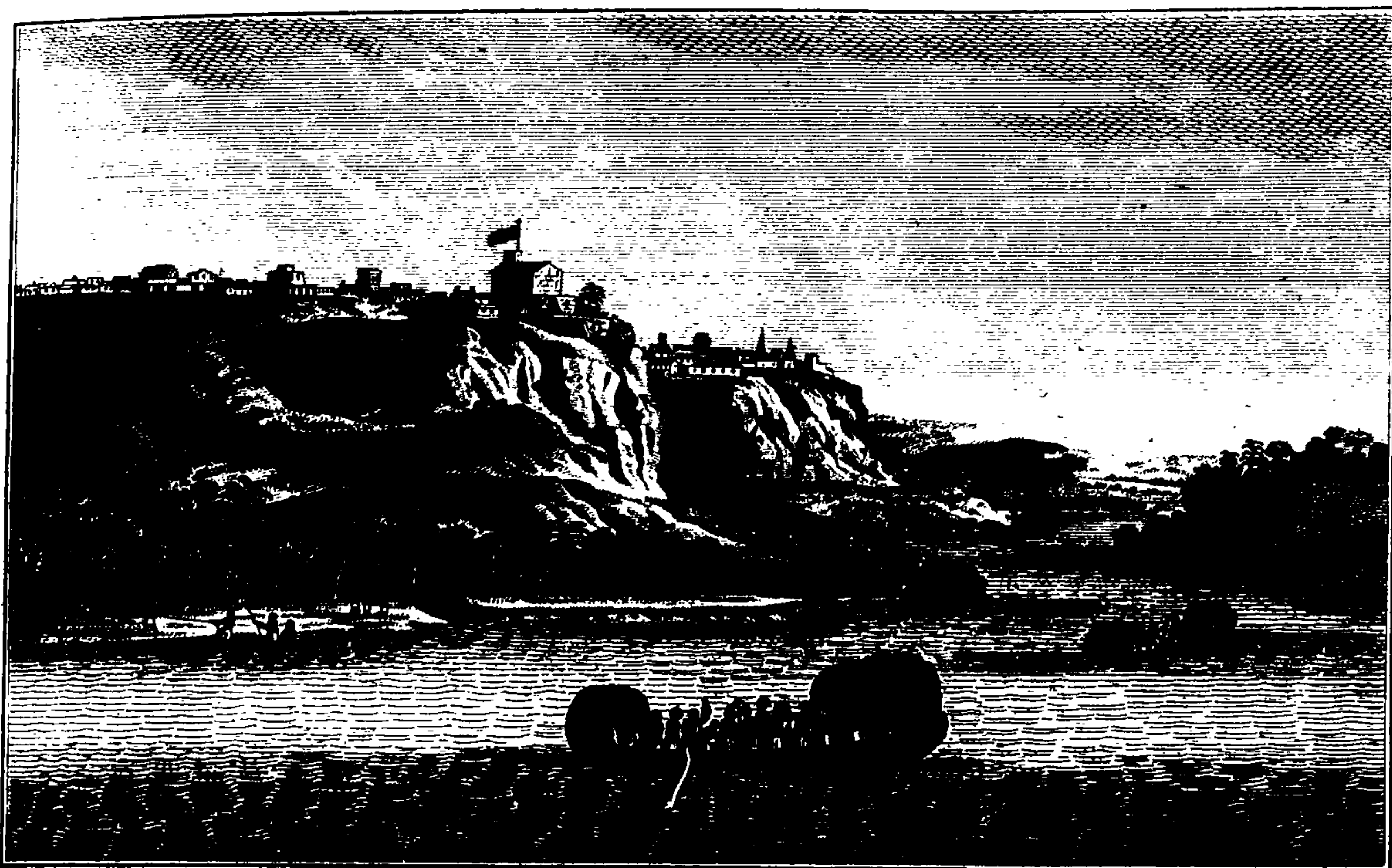
The churches, and other public buildings, except the jesuit's college, have stone foundations; but the roofs are very mean, being covered only with straw; and they are indifferently provided with utensils for the celebration of divine offices.

The city is well supplied with fresh water by two excellent fountains. The one is in a place called St. James's-street, and the other within the walls of the court. Besides these there is, on the east side, near the foot of the hill, a spring of excellent water, called the Vese, which falls into the river Lelunda, and serves to water the adjacent country.

Before the great church is a spacious square, on one side of which a large market is every day kept for the sale of provisions. The rest of the square is surrounded with elegant houses, chiefly inhabited by noblemen. The city is very populous, the number of inhabitants being computed at 40,000.

The authority of the king of Congo is absolute, the lives and property of his subjects being entirely at his disposal. They approach him, on all occasions, in the most submissive manner; and whoever neglects paying proper respect and obedience to him, is punished with perpetual slavery. He has a council, consisting of 12 persons, who are his favourites, and with whom he advises in all matters relative to the affairs of state. All orders

Engraved for **BANKE'S New System of GEOGRAPHY** *Published by Royal Authority*



*ST SALVADOR, a Portuguese CITY on the RIVER LELUNDA, in the
Kingdom of CONGO in AFRICA.*



*The Manner of TRAVELLING, as practiced by the PEOPLE of
CONGO in AFRICA*

Engraved for BANKES'S New System of GEOGRAPHY, Published by Royal Authority



The King of CONGO preparing for an Excursion, attended by his Nobility and Guards.



Different ranks of the Natives of CONGO a Country in AFRICA, in their respective Habits.

orders of a public nature are also made known by them, to which the people are obliged to pay the same obedience as if issued by the king himself. He is always attended by a number of the nobility, who dwell in and about the palace, besides his domestics, and other officers of his household. He has also a strong guard, which he keeps not only for the dignity of his court, but for the security of his person. He gives public audience twice a week, but no one is permitted to speak to him except his favourite nobles. His dress is very rich, being for the most part cloth of gold or silver, with a long velvet mantle. He generally wears a white cap on his head, as do all his favourites; but if any of the latter come under the displeasure of the king, he orders the cap to be taken off, which is the highest mark of indignity they can receive; this white cap being considered here as a badge of nobility or knighthood, and of no less honour than the star or garter in Europe.

When the king goes abroad he is attended by a numerous retinue; for not only his nobles accompany him, but likewise all the principal men of the city, some of whom go before, and others behind. He is also attended by a numerous guard, armed with sabres, lances, or bows and arrows.

When he goes to the cathedral, the Portuguese, both temporal and spiritual, as well as the grandees, must wait on him, and return with him to the palace: but the Portuguese are not obliged to attend him on any other occasion. At these times the king is dressed in his richest robes, which consist of a long mantle or cloak of silk or velvet, ornamented in the most sumptuous manner. On his head he wears a bordered cap, and round his neck are chains of gold, intermixed with the finest coral. He has a sort of half boots on his legs, and his arms and wrists are decorated with bracelets of gold.

There are other times also when his majesty's pomp and grandeur are particularly displayed. One of these is when he gives public audience to his nobles, or any foreign envoys, which is generally after dark. The courtiers pass through a long gallery, between two ranks of Negroes, bearing waxen flambeaux. His majesty is seated in a chair of state, under a superb canopy. He is elegantly habited in a robe of tissue, ornamented with brilliants of the first lustre. On his right hand stands an officer, waving an handkerchief at a little distance, to cause an agreeable breeze. At his left stands another, bearing in his right hand a sceptre, and in his left a bow. He is surrounded by attendants, each holding a flambeaux in his hand.

On these days he causes all the noblemen, then in the bounds of the palace, to be numbered, and a provision is made accordingly. The entertainment is prepared in the largest apartments in the palace, and the provisions are brought in pots, some of which contain boiled beans, others flesh and fish, and some are filled with millet, seasoned only with salt and palm-oil. When every thing is ready, the king sends to the greatest lords each his mess in a wooden platter, with a small flask of palm-wine but the others are called up by their names, six or seven together, and such provisions are given to them as the king thinks proper to direct, with which they retire to an adjoining apartment. As soon as they have done eating, they all come into the king's presence, and, falling upon their knees, clap their hands, and bow their heads, in token of thanks and submission; after which they depart home, except the king's favourites, who smoke tobacco and drink wine with him during the remainder of the day.

The king has one lawful wife, who is called Mani-Mombada, that is, Queen. She lives with great splendour, having apartments in the palace particularly appropriated to her use. She has a great number of ladies, who attend on her alternatively, both day and night; and the king's concubines are obliged to pay her the greatest homage; for should they behave to her in the least disrespectful, they would be punished with perpetual slavery.

The king's revenue consists chiefly in the tribute that is paid to him by several vassal princes, and which the mani, or governors of the six chief provinces, are obliged to gather for him. There are others that make him a kind of free-will offerings, some of cattle, others of grain, wine, palm-oil, and the like; as acknowledgements for the lands they hold under him. He is also proprietor of all the zimbis, or cockle-shells, (the current coin of this and other neighbouring kingdoms,) which brings him in exchange slaves, elephants teeth, sanders, stuffs, cattle, millet, and other commodities. Fines and confiscations likewise bring him a considerable income. To which may be added his power in levying taxes on his subjects as often as he pleases; but this he seldom does, except in cases of necessity; the poverty of his subjects being so great, that if he were to repeat such impositions often, it might subject them to revolt, and consequently produce some disagreeable consequences.

The king's forces are not very numerous, nor are they either well clothed or disciplined. The best of them are the musketeers, who, having been taught the use of fire-arms by the Portuguese, retain the art of handling them with surprising dexterity. All the king's subjects may be said to be soldiers; for whenever there is occasion, and he thinks proper to command, they must all attend.

These soldiers are taught to fall on the foe with a dreadful kind of bravery, or rather fury, which they do accordingly upon all occasions; but as their arms are of little use in such violent and irregular onsets, for want of better discipline, they are sometimes put to the rout, and when that happens they are seldom able to rally; so that the breaking of the very first body is mostly attended with the loss of the battle. The flight of one army generally animates the other to an obstinate pursuit, the consequences attending which are dreadful, and the carnage always great. When the conquerors think proper to relinquish the pursuit, they return and plunder the enemy's camp, seize all the men, women, and children they meet with, and sell them to the Europeans for slaves. They look upon this as the most considerable part of the spoil, and therefore dispatch them as soon as possible to the sea-side, or to some inland market. Few of those wounded in the battle survive, their arrows and darts being infected with so deadly a poison, that if they draw blood, and the person is not provided with some extraordinary antidote, it is sure to cause a speedy and unavoidable death.

After a conquest, terms of peace are proposed by the victor, which, though favourable on his own part, are generally accepted by the vanquished; but they are no longer attended to by the latter, than while he becomes sufficiently formidable to renew the war.

With respect to the succession to the crown of Congo no order is observed, neither legitimation or seniority taking place farther than the ruling nobles think proper, who esteem all alike honourable, and choosing him among the king's sons for whom they have the greatest respect, or think the most proper to govern. Sometimes they set aside all the children, and give the crown to a brother, nephew, or some other distant relation.

In order that justice may be administered throughout his dominions, the king appoints a judge in every particular province, to hear and determine all causes, whether of a civil or criminal nature. These are called Royal Judges; from whom, however, an appeal may be made to the king, who, for that purpose, presides twice a week at the supreme court.

There are only two offences here that are deemed capital, namely, treason and murder; in both which cases the punishment is solely invested in the king, who generally condemns them to the loss of their heads and estates, the latter of which are confiscated to his use.

In trifling matters the offenders are punished various ways. If they are poor, they are either bastinadoed or whipped; but if rich, they are punished by having fines levied on them at the discretion of the judge.

There

There are many instances of cruelty and oppression which the poorer sort are subject to from their superiors in this kingdom. Among these are the following. If a poor man happens to contract a debt with a rich one, he is not only liable to be stripped of all he hath, (not excepting his wife and family, who, in such cases, are often sold for slaves,) but to be also bastinadoed, dragged to a jail, and there inhumanly treated, in order to oblige some of his friends to procure him his liberty at an exorbitant rate.

Another proceeding, equally cruel and oppressive, is, that if an insolvent debtor secrets himself from his tyrannic creditor, or flies into some other country, either to avoid a jail, or being sold for a slave, it is looked upon as a flagrant crime; in which case the creditor makes no hesitation to seize on some wealthy relation of his, and imprison him in his stead, till he has extorted, by the most cruel usage, a sufficient sum from his other friends to satisfy him for the debt.

This arbitrary power extends even so far as to debts contracted by gaming, a vice to which the people of Congo are greatly addicted.

The Portuguese principally reside at St. Salvador, where they carry on a considerable traffic with most other parts of the kingdom. The goods they sell to the natives are various sorts of grain, fruits, plants, and other provisions, which they bring from Brazil. The articles from Europe are English cloth, and other stuffs, copper and brass vessels, several kinds of earthen ware, rings and other ornaments; tobacco, wine, brandy, and other spirituous liquors; light stuffs made of cotton, linen, and woollen; with a great variety of tools and utensils. In return for which they receive from the natives elephants teeth, furs, and other commodities of the country; but the chief article is slaves, prodigious numbers of which they annually export to the plantations in America. The best and most serviceable of these are brought from Angola, the country of the Jaggas, and other adjacent parts, where they are naturally very robust and strong; whereas those in the provinces of Congo being for the most part brought up in sloth and indolence, either die in their passage, through misery and sickness, or soon after their arrival, through the change of climate, or the severe treatment they receive from those to whom they are sold.

Provinces of Congo.

THE province of Songo is bounded on the east by Pango and Sundi, on the west by the Ethiopic Sea, on the north by the river Zaire, and on the south by the Lelunda. The soil is dry and sandy; and were it not for the great quantities of salt which are gathered on the sea-coast, the governor or count's income would be very trifling. The chief produce of the inland parts are palm-trees, on the fruit of which the inhabitants principally subsist.

The duchy of Bemba is one of the largest and richest provinces in the whole kingdom: its soil is naturally fertile, and would produce abundance of all the necessities of life, were the natives industrious in cultivating and improving it. The sea-coasts produce likewise a prodigious quantity of salt, insomuch that they have not only a sufficiency for their own consumption, but they also export it to foreign countries, which makes this article yield an extraordinary revenue to the crown. The inhabitants in general profess the Roman Catholic religion, and keep for their service several jesuits and other priests.

The capital of this country is called Banga, or Panga, and is situated about thirty miles from the sea-coast. It is a large town, but the houses, like those in Songo, are built in a very straggling and irregular manner. It stands in a hilly country, and is watered by two rivulets. Here are several churches, but they are all very mean buildings, the walls of them being made with clay, and the tops covered with thatch.

The lord of Bemba is the most powerful of all the

king's vassals, and is paid the greatest respect at court, being also captain-general of his majesty's forces.

The province or duchy of Sundi is divided into several particular governments, most of which being far distant from the capital, and in places surrounded with mountains almost inaccessible, the people pay obedience to the governor according to their own discretion. They are always armed, and keep the whole province in a constant state of trouble and agitation; for as the Portuguese have not been able to propagate their religion among them, they are more refractory than any other people in the whole kingdom.

The marquissate of Pango was formerly called Panga Logos, at which time it had the title and prerogative dignity of kingdom; but has lost both ever since the kings of Congo subdued and reduced it to the rank of a province.

The duchy of Bata, or Batta, is of considerable extent, and was formerly a kingdom of itself, till it voluntarily submitted to the kings of Congo, for which reason it enjoys more privileges than any other province in the kingdom, the government being always conferred on a person descended from the ancient kings of that country.

The marquissate of Pemba, which, though smaller in extent than any of the rest, has always had this singular advantage, that its capital hath ever been the native country, seat, and burial-place of all the kings of Congo, whether Idolaters or Christians. This province is well watered, not only by the Lelanda, which runs quite through it from east to west, but also by the river Ambriki, and some others, which equally contribute to its fertility, and the riches and happiness of its inhabitants. The constant residence of the king and his court, which is very numerous, emulates the people to industry; whilst the great consumption of provisions, and other merchandizes, improves their commerce, encourages their diligence, and increases their wealth; the fruits of which they quietly enjoy, without being exposed to the extortions of foreign viceroys, or the incursions of barbarous neighbours, by being so happily situated in the heart of the country.

SECTION IV.

L O A N G O.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Division. Climate. Soil. Productions. Natives. Ceremonies. Religion.

THE kingdom of Loango extends along the African coast from two to five degrees south latitude, and is upwards of 400 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Benin, on the south by Congo Proper, on the east by Makoko, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. This country, as well as Angola, was formerly a part of the kingdom of Congo, but has long been dismembered from it. It is watered by several small rivers, and divided into four principal provinces, called Loango, Loango-mongo, Chylongo, and Piri.

Though Loango is situated almost in the middle of the torrid zone, the climate is by no means unwholesome, while the soil is capable of improvement, though greatly neglected through the indolence of the natives. They have, however, several sorts of peas and beans, with large and small millet, of all which the ground yields annually three crops. They have fruits of various kinds, as oranges, lemons, bananas, pumpkins, cocoa-nuts, &c.

Of wild animals they have tigers, leopards, elephants, civet cats, and a variety of monkeys. The only tame animals are goats and hogs; and poultry is so plentiful that sixpenny-worth of beads will purchase twenty good fowls. Wild fowl are as numerous, and several uncommon birds peculiar to the country. The most remarkable of these is the pelican, a bird larger than a swan, which in shape resembles a heron. Its feathers are

are black and white, and it has a bare place on the breast. The natives catch great quantities of fish on the coast.

The natives who are called Bramas are tall, well shaped, and of a shining black colour. In disposition they are civil, jealous and much addicted to drinking.

In dress, food, and several ceremonies relative to marriages, &c. they resemble the natives of Congo Proper. Some of them have ten or twelve wives, but the common people in general have but two or three.

It is affirmed by several writers, that the children of the natives are born of much the same colour as those of the Europeans, but in two days become as black as their parents. This often deceived the Portuguese at their first settling in these parts, for having commerce with the negro women, they vainly imagined, till convinced to the contrary, that the children were theirs.

One circumstance here relative to the birth of children is very remarkable. Though both parties are negroes, yet sometimes it happens that the offspring is very different in colour to that of its parents. These at a distance greatly resemble Europeans: they have grey eyes, and red or yellow hair; but when you are close to them their colour is like the corpse of an European, and their eyes appear, as it were, fixed in their heads. Their sight is very imperfect in the day, but at night they see clear, especially if it be moon-light. It is supposed that the birth of these is occasioned by the effects of imagination in the woman in seeing a white man, in the same manner as history informs us, that a white woman, by viewing the picture of a negro, was delivered of a black child.

They are called Dondos by the negroes, and Albinos, or Whites, by the Portuguese. They are always presented to the king a few days after they are born, brought up in the court, attend his person, and are held in such high esteem by him that no person whatever dare offend them: if they go to the markets they have the liberty of taking such articles as they think proper, without controul.

When any one dies, the relations immediately make it known by running about the town or village, and shrieking in the most hideous manner, after which they bring the corpse into the street, and wash and clean it. When the grave is dug they carry several of their household goods, and lay by the side of it, as also the most valuable things used by the deceased in his life-time. They then hastily take up the corpse, and carry it with all expedition to the grave, in which it is immediately deposited: some of the goods are thrown into the grave, and after they have shewed their lamentations by howling and the most strange gestulations, it is filled up with earth. The remaining goods are set over the graves on poles, being first cut to prevent their being stolen. The relations of the deceased bewail his loss by attending the grave, morning and evening, for six successive weeks.

They will not suffer any foreigner to be buried in their country. When it happens that an European dies here his body is carried in a boat two miles from the shore, and thrown into the sea. This custom took its rise from a Portuguese gentleman being buried here some years ago, soon after which the whole country was afflicted with a famine. The priests thought proper to attribute the cause of the general calamity to the interment of the foreigner, whose body, in consequence of their opinions, was taken up and thrown into the sea; and from this circumstance they have never since permitted a stranger to be interred in their country.

With respect to the religion of these people, they are all idolaters, and worship idols which they call mokissos.

If a man has got a foolish child he must not eat of the breast or udder of a buffalo; but if he afterwards gets another more sensible he becomes free from that restraint. These, and such like idle maxims, they observe with the greatest exactness, firmly believing

that if the command enjoined by the mokisso, or the promises made to him, are not fully performed, he hath power to kill, or otherwise punish them.

All circumstances that happen to them, whether good or evil, they suppose to arise from the power of the mokisso. If a man preserves a good constitution by living chaste and temperate, he ascribes his health to the mokisso, and not to those virtues themselves. If a sick man recovers, they never impute it either to the force of nature, or the application of medicines, but the mokisso gets the credit of the cure which they performed; and if the patient happens to die of old age, or by any accident, they believe he was killed by sorcery, for having violated the injunctions laid on him by the mokisso.

Besides their private mokissos, they have many public ones, that are kept in temples or huts, to which they daily repair to their devotions. One of these is at a village called Thiriko, and in figure resembles a man. The ganga, or high-priest, who is lord of the village, performs the service every morning, the manner of which is thus: As soon as the people are assembled he sits down upon a mat, and with a leathern bag strikes his knee several times, having small iron bells fastened to his fingers. After this he strikes the bag several times on his breast, and then uses many strange motions and postures of his body, hands, head and eyes; sometimes he raises his voice, and then depresses it, frequently repeating the word Mariomena, to which the assembly answer, Ka. When this has continued for some time, the ganga appears as if distracted, and his rage becomes so violent that he is obliged to be held; but by virtue of a sour liquor drawn from cane, with which they sprinkle him, he recovers, and then declares what he has received from the mokisso, and what must be done in cases of sickness and the like. After this he recommends to the mokisso the health of the king, the welfare of the country, flourishing of the seed, success to the merchants, and full nets for fishermen. At the mention of the king's name the whole company clap their hands in token of affection, and then the ceremony is concluded.

Description of Loango the capital. Power and state of the king. Concise account of their laws. Funeral ceremonies of the king. His revenues. Articles of commerce.

LOANGO, the capital of the kingdom, is situated in four deg. and a half of south latitude, and is about four miles from the sea coast. It is a large and populous city, and the streets are long and spacious.

Near the center of the city is a spacious square, surrounded with lofty trees, where a daily market is held for the sale of all kinds of provisions, as meat, fish, poultry, wine, corn and oil; also palm cloths of various sorts, and great quantities of elephants teeth.

The royal palace consists of a number of detached buildings. The king's apartments are in front, and behind are those belonging to his women. The whole is surrounded with lofty palm-trees, and is at least a mile and a half in circumference.

At a small distance from the east end of the city is a place called the Broad Way, where such as have been found guilty of any crime by the imbonda drink are dragged and executed.

When any person is suspected of a crime, and it cannot be clearly proved against him, he is sworn by drinking a certain quantity of this liquor. It is made from the root of a small tree or shrub, called imbonda, which is about six inches long, and much resembles a carrot. The root is scraped in water, which is boiled in gourds. The liquor is as bitter as gall, and so strong that one root would serve to try an hundred people. When the person drinks the liquor, if it be too much infused it occasions a suppression of urine, and strikes up into the head, inebriating to such a degree that he falls down as if dead, in which case he is pronounced guilty,

guilty, and is accordingly dragged to the Broad Way and executed; but if he can stand upright, and make water, he is deemed innocent. The determination of this matter rests entirely in the imbonda-giver, or person appointed to administer the potion: for however innocent he may be that is suspected, yet if the imbonda-giver has any dislike to him, or his accuser is a person of importance, he is sure to give him the liquor so strongly infused that its operation proves fatal, though he does it so artfully that it cannot be discovered. This ceremony is performed at Loango almost every week, so that in the course of a year many people are destroyed by it.

The king hath a great number of wives, all of whom, except the principal one, are obliged to be very subservient to him. He is a very powerful prince, and able to bring into the field a considerable army, for all his subjects are obliged to equip themselves with arms, and immediately attend at his command. His dress is elegant and sumptuous, and both he and his nobles wear, on their left arm, the skin of a wild cat sewed together with one end stuffed. The king shuts the door of his apartment, and continues by himself during the whole time he is at dinner: for should any person happen to see him either eat or drink, he would be immediately put to death.---So punctual is this law observed, that even animals are subject to the same fate, which happened to a fine dog presented the king by a Portuguese. The creature not being very well fed by those who had the care of him, smelling the victuals one day when the king went to dinner, followed the scent, and his majesty not fastening the door properly, the dog, while he was at dinner, thrust it open with his feet, and entered the room, when the king immediately quitted the apartment, and ordered him to be killed.

Every day after dinner the king goes in state, accompanied by his nobles, and a great crowd of people, to the banquetting-house in order to refresh himself by drinking palm-wine. As soon as he arrives there he seats himself on the throne, and on each side of him is a cup-bearer. He on the right hand reaches him the cup when he is inclined to drink, but at the time turns his head: notice of which is given to the company by him on the left, who strikes two iron rods, pointed at the ends, one against the other. At this signal the people turn their backs to the king, and bend their faces to the ground, in which posture they remain so long as the irons continue ringing; after which they rise, turn their faces to the king, and wish him health by clapping their hands.

After sun-set he goes a second time to the apartment adapted for eating, where his provisions are prepared for him as before; after which he again visits the banquetting-house, where he remains till nine or ten o'clock, when he returns, and retires to rest.

The king seldom appears abroad except on the before-mentioned occasions, or when an ambassador arrives, or some strange accident has happened; such as when a leopard is taken in the country, or else lodged about the city ready for the chase (for he is very fond of that diversion,) or, lastly, when his land is to be tilled, and his chief nobility bring him tribute.

The king appears in public at the commencement of the seed-time, which is always on the 1st of January. He takes his seat at three o'clock in the afternoon, when the women who till the ground appear before him with their instruments of husbandry, and the men walk backwards and forwards armed and clothed in their military habits. The king generally stays about an hour, when he returns to his palace amidst the acclamations of the people, who spend the rest of the day in mirth and festivity.

When any of the inhabitants have discovered a leopard in the woods adjoining to the capital, intimation of it is given to the king, who repairs to his public place of appearance, and a trumpet is sounded to give notice to the people to attend him at the sport. If the

place where the leopard lies be too far for the king to walk, he is carried on mens shoulders in a kind of chair made of wicker, and curiously ornamented. As soon as they arrive at the spot where the leopard is secreted, the people surround it, armed with bows and arrows, lances and darts, leaving only a small place open that the king may have a convenient opportunity of seeing the sport. Before this opening nets are spread, that if the leopard should happen to take his course that way he may be caught alive. When every thing is ready, the beast is roused by the people making an universal shouting, with the blowing of horns and beating of drums. As soon as he finds himself surrounded he endeavours to make his escape, but is impeded by the volleys of darts and arrows that are discharged at him by the multitude, who follow him close, and if he happens not to take the net, overpower and dispatch him. When the leopard is killed the king retires to his palace, before which the hunters bring the carcase and triumph over it by dancing, singing, and exhibiting various kinds of diversions. The king then orders the beast to be flayed, and the skin is brought to him; after which the body is buried very deep in the earth, except the gaul, which is taken out and thrown into the river, it being considered as a deadly poison; and thus end the ceremonies of hunting the leopard.

By the laws of this kingdom theft is never punished with death unless it be committed on the king: in common cases, when a thief is detected either he or his friends must restore the goods stolen, or atone for the want of them by an adequate compensation, besides which the thief is tied to a post in the middle of the street, where he continues an hour as an object of ridicule and contempt to the spectators. If he is unable either to restore the goods or pay the value of them, his relations must work for the party robbed, till such time as he thinks himself sufficiently satisfied for the loss he has sustained.

When the king dies the succession of the crown does not devolve to his children, but to his eldest brother; but for want of such kindred, it falls to his sister's children.

Those who have pretensions to the crown are five in number, and reside in towns or villages at some distance from the court: they preserve their titles agreeable to the names of the respective villages in which they live. The next heir to the crown is called Mani-Kay, who resides at a large town of that name situated about five miles from Loango. The second is called Mani-Bokke, and lives at a town called Bokke, situated about fourteen miles up the country. The third, called Mani-Salloga, lives at Salloga, a large town situated about 35 miles north of Loango. Mani-Kat, the fourth, lives at the village of Kat, about 50 miles from Loango. And Mani-Inyami, the fifth and last, resides at the hamlet of Inyami, which is situated on the southern borders of the kingdom.

When the king dies, Mani-Kay succeeds him, Mani-Bokke removes to the residence of Mani-Kay, and the rest all follow, a proper person being appointed to supply the place of the last. And thus by a regular rotation they succeed to each others villages, and after to the crown.

After the decease of the king the Mani-Kay (or next heir to the crown) enters immediately upon the government, but he does not go to court till the funeral of the late king is over, the ceremonies attending which are as follow: They first make two vaults under ground adjoining to each other, in one of which they lay the royal corpse, richly dressed, on a stool, and by it all manner of household stuff, as pots, kettles, pans, cloths and garments. They then place round it little images made of wood and red earth representing the household servants of the deceased. After this they leave the royal corpse, and go to the other vault, where they place the bodies of several slaves, who have been sacrificed to serve the king in the other world,

world, and to make attestation in what manner he behaved during the course of his life. The two vaults are then closed, and over each is erected a covering to preserve it from the inclemency of the weather.

The king of Loango's revenues principally arise from elephants teeth, copper, and slaves. The greatest part of the copper is brought by stealth from an inland country, the inhabitants of which are always at variance with the king of Loango.

The goods sold here by the natives consist of ivory, tin, lead, copper, iron, red wood, and several sorts of cloths, the manufacture of the country; in exchange for which they purchase of the Europeans salt, Silesia ticking, cutlasses, looking-glasses, beads, and other articles.

Provinces of Loango.

LOANGIRI is a large and populous province, and is well watered by several brooks and rivers, which render the soil exceeding fertile. The inhabitants live chiefly on fish, and employ themselves in making cloth and linen. They are in general a very courageous people, and more addicted to war than their neighbours.

Loango-Mongo is a large mountainous country, and particularly abounds with palm-trees. The inhabitants are merchants, and, like those of Loangiri, employ themselves chiefly in making cloth and linen. In this province is the city of Loango, the usual residence of the sovereign of the kingdom.

The province of Chilongo is more extensive than either of the other three. Some parts of it are very mountainous; but in others there are large and extensive plains, which are very fertile, and produce good grain, as also abundance of palm-trees. It is a very populous part of the country; and though the inhabitants are not so well polished as their neighbours, yet they carry on a considerable trade, particularly in elephants teeth and cloth. The governor of this province is absolute, at whose decease the people have the liberty of choosing a successor, without the approbation of the king of Loango.

Puri is a very flat country, but it is well peopled, and produces great plenty of most sorts of provisions, particularly cattle and poultry. The woods are well stocked with timber; besides which there are fruit-trees in abundance. The inhabitants live chiefly on milk, and beasts which they kill in the woods. Some of them are great traders, and they are all distinguished for being very quiet and affable in their dispositions.

SECTION V.

ANSIKO, AND THE COUNTRY OF THE JAGGAS.

THERE are bordering on Angola and Congo two countries called Ansiko and Matamba, concerning which some particulars are worthy of notice.

Ansiko is bounded on the north by some of the deserts of Nubia, on the south by Congo, on the east by one of the small rivers that runs into the Zaire, and on the west by the borders of Loango. Its extent is 285 miles in length, and 180 in breadth.

There are many mines of copper in Ansiko, of which considerable advantages are made by the Portuguese. It is in general a very barren country, and the inhabitants are mere savages. They have no lands or settled inheritance, but wander, like Arabs, from one place to another, regardless of life, and intrepid in their undertakings. They pay no attention to agriculture, or use any endeavours to preserve their existence, but by plundering all who happen to fall in their way, some of whom they kill, and others they keep as slaves. They are dreaded for their extreme brutality, and are so irrational, that few Europeans can trade with them. Their language is barbarous, and so unintelligible that it cannot be understood even by the inhabitants of Congo.

Both sexes go naked from the waist upwards, but the better sort distinguish themselves by wearing red and

black caps made of Portuguese velvet; and, in order to preserve their health, they all anoint their bodies with a composition made of white sandal-wood pounded, and palm-oil.

They are absolute cannibals, their chief food being human flesh; and there are public markets where whole bodies are hung up and exposed for sale. They believe themselves possessed of a right to dispose arbitrarily of their slaves; and those taken in war are fattened, killed, and either used by their conquerors, or sold to the butchers: for the people of this country feed on each other with as much indifference as those of other countries do on the respective animals appropriated by Providence for the sustenance of mankind.

The arms used by these people are battle-axes and very strong bows, strengthened and adorned with the skins of serpents. The strings are made of supple and slender shoots of trees; and the arrows are of a hard but very tight wood, pointed at the ends with iron. They shoot with such surprising agility, that they will discharge near a dozen arrows from the bow, before the first falls to the ground. They manage the battle-axe with equal dexterity. One end of this instrument is very sharp, and the other flat like a mallet, with a handle between about half the length of the iron, rounded at the end, and covered with the skin of a serpent: with the flat end they screen their bodies, and ward off the darts of their enemies. They have daggers also in scabbards made of the skins of serpents, which they carry by their sides, fastened in leathern girdles.

Their religion, as may reasonably be supposed, is gross idolatry. They worship the sun as their chief deity, whom they represent in the figure of a man, and the moon under that of a woman. They have also an infinite number of inferior deities, each keeping one peculiar idol, to whom he offers sacrifices, and constantly invokes before he proceeds on any dangerous enterprize.

The current coin are zimbis, or small shells, gathered on the coast of Angola; in exchange for which they give slaves, as also for salt, silk, glass, knives, and other merchandize.

There is a small kingdom to the southward of Ansiko called Matamba, inhabited by the Jaggas, a savage and cannibal people, whose origin is not known. It is supposed they first settled about the kingdom of Ansiko, and from thence spread themselves along those spacious wastes that lie between Ansiko and Loango. From thence it is imagined they spread by degrees along the eastern frontiers of Loango, Congo, and Angola, and from thence eastward to the kingdom of Matamba, of the latter of which, with the territory adjoining, they made themselves complete masters, and have ever since preserved, to the great injury of their more rational and peaceable neighbours.

The territories of these people extend from north-east to south-west, along Matamba and Benguela, about 900 miles; but they are very narrow in proportion, being in some parts 150, and in others not above 100 miles broad. They are enclosed between the kingdoms of Matamba and Benguela, from whence they are separated by the great river Kunerio on one side, and by the empire of Moni Muji on the other. The only town throughout all these dominions is called Kassari, situated at the north part of them, near the frontiers of Matamba, where the Great Jagga, or King, occasionally resides.

Besides this, they have neither towns or houses, but roam from place to place with tents, removing as inclination directs, or necessity obliges them.

They never cultivate the ground, but seize every thing that comes in their way, and live entirely by plundering their neighbours. In their persons they are tall, lusty, and strong, yet nimble and swift of foot, climbing up the steep mountains and craggy rocks with most astonishing agility. Their women are stout, well shaped, fertile, warlike, and active; and both sexes are so intrepid, that no enterprize is thought too hard or dan-

rous for them to venture upon. Whenever they meet with an opportunity of plundering, they rush on their adversaries at all hazards, and with a fearless unconcern for their own lives. They consider it as the greatest mark of bravery to attack the fiercest and strongest creatures, and a still greater one to be more fierce and inhuman. This savageness not only extends to the people of the nations they invade, but to those of their own, and even to their relations and children, whom they make no scruple to butcher and eat when they are in want of other food.

They build their kilombos, or camps, of such materials, and on such a construction, that they are easily removed on the shortest notice. When they go on any capital expedition, they are always accompanied by the Great Jagga, or chief, and his court. He is a man of courage and resolution; but never undertakes any thing without previous enchantments, and consulting his mokisso, or idol, by sacrifices, from whence he pretends to foreknow the event of his enterprize. On these occasions he rises before day-break, and sets himself on a stool, attended by two of his conjurors, one on each side, and about fifty women standing in a circle round him, waving the tails of beasts, and singing. In the center is kindled a great fire, over which is placed an earthen pot, containing some white powder or paint, wherewith his conjurors besmear his forehead, temples, breast, and belly, using at the same time many enchanting terms, and continuing their ridiculous ceremonies till sun-set; at which time they bring him his casengala, or hatchet, and put it into his hands, bidding him be strong against his enemies, for the mokisso is with him. A male child is then brought to him, which he immediately kills: after which four men are brought to him, two of whom he slays, and orders the other two to be killed without the camp. He also orders ten cows to be killed, five within and five without the camp, with the same number of goats and dogs. The blood of these animals is sprinkled on the fire, but the flesh is eaten with great festivity and triumph. The same ceremonies are likewise used by the inferior officers of the army on the like account; but neither they or their chief make use of idols on these or any other occasions, pretending that the mokisso frequently appears and speaks to them.

The soldiers are neither well disciplined, armed, or clothed. Their offensive weapons are bows and arrows, spears, darts, daggers, and clubs: but they are taught to use their defensive weapons as well as their missile ones, being particularly instructed to cover their bodies, which are almost naked, with their large oval shields, made of thick hides; and this method is singularly serviceable in a retreat, as it preserves them from being wounded by the arrows and lances of their pursuing enemy. Their chief excellency consists in the strength and activity of their bodies, in artfully covering themselves, and throwing their missile weapons, by which they generally annoy the enemy, and make them spend their shot against their shields. After this they renew the onset with such vigour, as seldom fails of putting the enemy to flight, which is always followed by a general slaughter, no respect being paid either to persons or sex.

When they expect any considerable opposition upon an invasion, they intrench themselves very quietly for some time, and only alarm the inhabitants with frequent skirmishes, till they think they have sufficiently harassed them. If these assault them, they stand on the defensive for two or three days, till the others have spent their strength and fury, when the commanding officer sends out a large detachment in the night, to lie in ambush at some distance from the enemy's camp. On the following morning they begin the attack, when the poor natives being suddenly surprized, are easily put to the rout, and leave their country to the rapacity of their merciless invaders.

The Great Jagga, or king, preserves a distinguished dignity, no person being permitted to sit before him,

except the kalambo, or head general, who is supreme judge in all cases, whether civil or criminal. This officer is allowed to sit on a chair with a back to it; but the tendela, or next in rank, who likewise sits as a judge, is only allowed a small stool about a foot high. Those of a certain rank are permitted to sit in the king's presence on a carpet, but they must spread it with their own hands. Those who obtain audience of the king must speak to him with their bodies bent almost double, and if of an inferior rank, must prostrate themselves on the ground. If the king happens to sneeze, cough, or break wind, the whole assembly must wish him health and long life; and those who are nearest to his person must give notice to those at a distance to do the same; on which they all express their good wishes, by clapping their hands and bending their bodies.

The common people of both sexes go almost naked, having only a piece of cloth fastened round the waist, and so small, that it barely covers half their thighs. Persons of rank, indeed, dress themselves in gaudy apparel; but they do it rather from pride than any affectation of modesty.

The best idea that can be given of the superior class of these people will be from the account of an European who served under the kalambo, or head general. "He wore (says he) long hair, set off with many knots of bamba shells. His neck was adorned with a collar of masos, which are another kind of shells found along the Ethiopic coast, and sold among them for about the value of 20s. His middle was covered with a girdle of lardes, or beads made of ostrich eggs, and under it a palm cloth as fine as silk. His body was painted with various figures, and anointed every day with human fat. He wore across his nose a piece of copper about two inches long, and two others of the same sort in his ears." This writer, however, does not mention his wearing any thing either on his hands or feet, but adds, "That he had about thirty wives, who followed him when he went abroad, one of whom carried his bow and arrows, and four others his cups and drinking utensils; and whenever he drank they all kneeled down and sung. He kept his men under the strictest discipline, and if any one of them turned his back to the enemy, he was condemned to death, and his body eaten; and the more effectually to deter them from cowardice, he used to make an oration to them from a kind of scaffold every night in dispraise of it, and in commendation of intrepidity."

The same writer has also furnished us with a description of the method in which they bring up their young soldiery. "These (says he) are not their own offspring, but those of such captives as they make in their excursions; for though they allow themselves to have many women, and these are no less fertile than those of other African nations, yet they suffer few of them to rear up their children, but order them to be buried alive as soon as born, and, in lieu of them, make choice of such as are the most promising from among those of their prisoners, to be trained up to arms, and to the plundering trade. These they commonly choose at about the age of twelve or thirteen years; the females for procreation, and the males for war. The latter are no sooner enrolled than they have a collar hung about their necks in token of slavery, which is to be worn by them till they bring home the head of an enemy, when it is publicly taken off, and they declared freemen of the cannibal commonwealth. The remainder of the captive train of both sexes are inhumanly reserved to be killed and eaten; not in time of scarcity of eat and other provisions, but out of cruel wantonness, and in preference to all other flesh. This privilege of being accounted men, and freed from their badge of slavery, seldom fails of inspiring the youths so chosen with an uncommon ambition to attain it at all hazards, and to face the greatest dangers with an intrepid boldness for the sake of it. It is by this method they keep up their number complete, and the fierce savage nature of the Jaggas from recoiling into humanity and compassion." The

The women of rank only wear a cloth about their middle, but take great pride in adorning their hair, necks, arms, and legs, with shells and beads of various sorts. They have a strange custom of pulling out four of their teeth, two above, and two below; and those who refuse to do this are so despised by the rest, that they are not permitted to associate with them.

The sexes intermix according to inclination, without observing any ceremonies of marriage. They have some particular maxims in the interment of their dead, especially those of the male kind, and which evince farther tokens of their savage cruelty. The deceased is not only washed, anointed, and bedecked with all his most valuable finery, but accompanied by two of his most beloved women, who are conveyed with him to his grave, with their arms broken. The body is carried to the grave in a chair, between two men, and placed in it as if still alive, and the two women, one on each side of it. As soon as they are thus deposited, the grave, which is commonly very deep, is covered on the top with earth; and the relations, who are there present, sprinkle it with the blood of slain goats and palm-wine: after which they make a funeral lamentation over it for several succeeding days. Those of higher rank are interred with more pomp, and the ceremonies and libations reiterated a longer or shorter number of days, weeks, &c. according to their quality.

Succinct Account of the Depredations committed by the Jaggas on the adjacent Countries.

AS the ferocious disposition of these people must naturally lead them to acts of cruelty and rapine, they have made the most daring attacks upon the lives and properties of the people of the different countries around them. The first and most resolute adventurer was one Zimbo. This leader, abetted and aided by a woman named Tem-ban-dumba, who served him in the two-fold capacity of concubine and counsellor, in the fifteenth century, made his first incursions into the empire of Congo, where he committed the most horrid cruelties and lawless depredations. He pursued his ra-

pacious designs at the head of a savage and numerous banditti for a considerable time, but was at length stopped in his career by the noble exertion of the king of Melinda, who, apprehending an invasion from him, advanced with his army some distance from the capital, and not only repelled, but totally defeated the savages. Thinking it laudable to extirpate so diabolical a race, he ordered his men to pursue and slay all before them, which they most willingly performed.

Notwithstanding this repulse, Zimbo persisted in his rapacious designs, and advanced as far to the southward as the Cape of Good Hope, and having greatly augmented his army, made all necessary preparations for a stroke of importance, when death put an end to all his projects; and soon after carried off his concubine and counsellor Tem-ban-dumba.

The surviving commanders dissolved the union, and followed their fortunes at the head of their respective corps. One of these chiefs, called Dongis, had a daughter a second Tem-ban-dumba, a monster as inhuman as the first, who, putting herself at the head of a corps, pursued the same iniquitous plan, and filled the greatest part of Ethiopia with terror, blood, and slaughter, till she fell a victim to her abominable passions.

The first murderers and plunderers were followed by a succession of others, who committed the ravages of their predecessors, and marked their way with blood and rapine. One, indeed, named Caluximbo, was an exception to the rest; but as he had some humanity in his composition, he was detested by his savage countrymen.

At length the Portuguese found means to conciliate the esteem of one of their leaders, named Cassange-Canguin-Gurij, by which he became humanized, embraced the Catholic religion, and was baptized by the name of Don Pascall.

This prince, however, soon renounced his new religion, and returned to his former horrid practices. The different tribes of these people still infest those parts of Africa that are contiguous to their country, marking their way with blood and slaughter.

C H A P. XII.

K I N G D O M O F B E N I N.

Extent. Boundaries. Climate. Productions.

THIS kingdom is in extent, from east to west, about 600 miles. It is bounded on the east by the kingdoms of Mujac and Makoko; on the west by Ardrah, and part of the Gulph of Guinea; on the north by part of Gago and Biafara; and on the south by Congo.

In general the country is very low and woody, but well watered with rivers, the most distinguished of which is that called by the English and French the Benin, but by the Portuguese Rio Formosa, or the Beautiful River. Its banks are exceeding pleasant, being ornamented with lofty trees, and many small but neat villages. There are also several good towns for trade.

The climate of this kingdom is rather unwholesome, through the noxious vapours exhaled from the low grounds by the heat of the sun. The soil is tolerably fertile for the produce of millet and rice; but as the inhabitants are not fond of those grains, little of them are cultivated. Their principal attention is directed to the produce of yams, which they use instead of bread. They have also great plenty of potatoes and other roots. The chief fruits here are oranges, lemons, and bananas. They have some cotton and pepper trees; the latter of which produce a tolerable commodity, but

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not in such quantities as those of the East Indies, neither are the corns so large.

The wild beasts are elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, and monkeys. The tame ones are horses, cows, sheep, dogs, and cats; the two latter of which the natives prefer to any other kind of flesh whatever. They have also plenty of poultry; and the woods abound with game, as harts, hares, partridges, pheasants, turtle doves, &c.

Disposition, Classes, Dress, Habitations, Food, Customs, Funeral and other Religious Ceremonies, Punishments, Fines, &c.

THE kingdom of Benin is divided into a number of petty royalties, all of whom, except the king of Ovetri, are slaves or vassals to the king of Great Benin. The natives in general are good natured and obliging, particularly to Europeans. If the latter compliment them with presents, their liberality is sure to be doubly returned. Gentle measures is the only way to succeed in whatever is wanted; in that case it is their greatest pleasure to oblige: on the contrary, if treated with violence, no people in the world can be more refractory. Among themselves they carry the appearance of civility and complaisance, but in reality they are very close and reserved, especially in their dealings, not caring to trust

each other. The traders are very attentive to business, and remarkably tenacious of their old customs, with which, if a foreigner complies, he may easily deal with them.

The state of Benin is divided into four classes, the first of which is composed only of three persons, called Great Lords, or Great Men, who are always near the king's person. Whoever wants to obtain any favour from his majesty must apply to them, in order to acquaint the king with their desires, and return his answer. As there is no intermediate person between these, the king, and those who solicit favours, they act on these occasions in such manner as best suits their own interests; so that in reality the whole government is entirely in their hands.

The second rank or class is composed of those called Ores-de-Roes, or Road Chiefs, who are of four sorts: the meanest preside over slaves; those a degree higher over the low rabble; the third inspect the conduct of those concerned in husbandry and agriculture; and the fourth, or superior order, superintend the military. These are very numerous, and from them are chosen the viceroys and governors of those countries subject to the king. They are all under the command of the three great men, and are responsible to them on all occasions. They obtain their posts by the recommendation of these three lords; and the king, as an ensign of their honour, presents each of them with a string of coral, which they are obliged continually to wear about their necks. They are made of a sort of pale earth or stone, well glazed, and greatly resemble variegated marble. The possessors must be very careful of them, for if any one should lose this badge of honour, whether by accident or otherwise, the consequence would be not only degradation, but the loss of his life.

The third class are those appointed by the government to treat with the Europeans on behalf of the traders of Benin. They are called Fiadors, or Brokers; and their business is to see that all matters of commerce are fairly transacted between the respective parties.

The last class consists of the commonalty. The generality of these are very indolent, nor will they go to work but when necessity obliges them. The laborious part of their business is executed by their wives, such as tilling the ground, spinning of cotton, weaving of cloth, and other handicrafts. The principal artificers among them are smiths, carpenters, and leather-dressers.

The dress of the better sort consists of a white callico or cotton cloth fastened round the waist, and neatly plaited in the middle; but the lower and upper parts of the body are entirely naked. The dress of the meaner sort is of the same form, and only differs in the quality of the stuff with which it is made.

The wives of the grandes wear callico paans, wove in this country, which are very fine, and beautifully variegated with different colours. These are fastened round the waist, and the upper part of the body is covered with a piece of cloth about a yard long, which serves instead of a veil. They wear necklaces of coral agreeably disposed; and their arms, legs, wrists, and fingers, are ornamented with copper or iron rings.

The men let their hair grow in its natural form, except buckling it in two or three places, in order to hang a coral to it; but the women's hair is artificially formed into large and small buckles, and divided on the crown of the head, so that the latter are placed with great uniformity. Some of them oil their hair, by which means it loses its black colour, and in time turns to a sort of green or yellow, which they are very fond of; but it is far from being agreeable to the eyes of a stranger.

When a great man goes abroad he is attended by a number of servants, all of whom are armed, some with spears, others with long darts, and some with bows and arrows. He usually rides on horseback, and sits on the beast sideways, in the same manner as the women do in England. One of his attendants holds an umbrella over his head to shelter him from rain, or the violent

heat of the sun; and another goes before leading the horse. They use neither saddle or stirrups; and the only security of the rider consists in his resting the left hand on the shoulder of one of his attendants.

In most of the towns of this kingdom the buildings are very spacious and lofty, but they are indifferently constructed, some of them being square, and others oblong. The doors are made high and narrow; the windows are few in number and small. They are all made with a flat roof, on the top of which is a covering raised several feet, to keep off the heat of the sun. Here they frequently regale themselves, when they pay a visit to each other.

The principal diet of the better sort consists of beef, mutton, or chickens. For bread they use yams, which, after being boiled, are beat fine, and made into cakes. Their common drink is water, with which they sometimes mix brandy. The poorer sort live on dried fish, yams, bananas, and pulse. Their drink is water, or a kind of beer somewhat resembling that called pito on the Slave Coast.

Polygamy is also allowed here. Their marriage ceremonies consist only in the consent of the parents, a present to the bride, and an entertainment for the guests on both sides. The men are exceeding jealous, for which reason the wives of the poorer people enjoy a pleasure to which those of the better sort are entirely strangers; for while the former have their liberty, the wives of the great are close confined, to obviate all opportunities of transgression.

When a woman is delivered of a boy, it is presented to the king as his property; for which reason all the males of this country are called the king's slaves; but the females are the property of the father, who has liberty to dispose of them at his own discretion.

When a woman bears two children at a birth, immediate information is given to the king, who orders public rejoicings to be made on the occasion. Such circumstances are considered as happy omens in all the territories of Benin, except at a place called Arebo, where they are productive of the most horrid cruelties; for the people there generally sacrifice both women and children to a certain demon, which they say inhabits a wood near the town. Sometimes, indeed, they will spare the wife by the husband's offering a female slave in her stead; but the children are condemned without redemption. A French traveller says, that while he was at this town, he knew a merchant's wife thus redeemed, but her children were destroyed, whose sad fate she often deplored with tears. The following year, says he, the like happened to the wife of a priest: she was delivered of two children, whom, with a slave in his wife's stead, the father was, by virtue of his office, himself obliged to sacrifice with his own hands. Of late years, however, that are enabled to defray the expence, avoid the consequences, by sending their wives, when they approach near the time of their delivery, to a more humane part of the country.

They practise circumcision on both sexes, which is performed when the children are about a fortnight old; but for this custom they give no reason, only saying that it was handed down to them by their ancestors. They also make incisions in different parts of their bodies in a sort of regular order, leaving the marks of birds, beasts, and other figures. The girls undergo the greatest punishment in this particular, being much more marked than the boys; for as they are considered as the greatest ornaments they can have, so their parents are very liberal in bestowing them.

When a person falls sick he immediately applies to the priest, who also acts in the capacity of physician, and furnishes him with medicines; but if these prove ineffectual, he has recourse to sacrifices. If the patient recovers, the priest is rewarded for his assistance, but no further regard is paid to him; so that the priests here are generally poor, having little other dependence than what arises from their abilities as physicians; for each man offers his own sacrifices to his idols, and thinks they

sufficiently acquit themselves of their religious duties without applying to the priest.

In cases of death the corpse is kept only one day before interment, except it happens at a distance from the general place of residence; then, in order to preserve it for conveyance, it is dried over a gentle fire till all the moisture is extracted, when it is put into a coffin, and publicly exposed; after which it is carried on men's shoulders to the place of interment. When the funeral is over the nearest relations go into mourning, and bewail their loss by cries and lamentations. The shew of mourning consists only in shaving their heads, some half way, and others all over; and the men shave off their beards.

At the funeral of a grandee many slaves are sacrificed; but the greatest number fall victims on the death of the king. The ceremonies attending a royal funeral in this country are very singular, and thus described by a writer who was an eye-witness of them. "As soon (says he) as the king of Benin expires, they dig a large pit in the ground at the palace, which is so deep that the workmen are sometimes in danger of being drowned by the quantity of water that springs from the earth. This pit they make wide at the bottom, and very narrow at the top. They first let down the royal corpse into it, and then such of his domestics, of both sexes, as are selected for that honour, for which there is great interest made. These being let down into the pit, they shut up the mouth with a large stone, in the presence of a crowd of people, who wait day and night. The next morning they remove the stone, and some proper officers ask the persons enclosed, if they have found the king? If they answer, the pit is shut up again, and the following day opened with the like ceremony, which continues till the persons are dead, and no answer returned. After this the chief ministers inform the successor, who immediately repairs to the pit, and causing the stone to be removed, orders all sorts of provisions to be laid on it for the entertainment of the populace. After they have regaled themselves, they run about the city in the night, committing the greatest outrages, and killing all the men, women, and children. They chop off their heads, and leave them in the streets, but they bring their bodies and throw them into the pit, with their garments, household goods, &c. as presents to the deceased king." This strange custom is still preserved in the strictest manner; and those who are allotted to fall victims on the occasion are so far from lamenting their fate, that they think it the highest mark of honour that can be conferred on them.

The religion professed by these people is strangely absurd and perplexed. They worship various kinds of idols, some of which are made of elephants teeth, claws, dead men's heads, skeletons, &c. Each is his own priest, and addresses himself to such of his idols as he likes best.

They believe that the apparitions of their ancestors appear to them, but it is only when they are asleep. They call the shadow of a man passadoor or conductor, which they believe really to exist, and that it will some time or other give testimony whether they have lived well or ill. If the former, they are to be raised to great dignity; but if the latter, they are to perish with hunger and poverty.

They make daily offerings to their idols, which consist only of a few yams mixed with oil. Sometimes they offer a fowl, but they only sprinkle the blood of it on the idol, for the flesh they convert to their own use. The great men make annual sacrifices, which are very expensive, and celebrated with great pomp. They kill multitudes of cows, sheep, and other kinds of cattle; and they provide an elegant entertainment for their friends, that lasts several days; besides which they give handsome presents to the poor.

The people of Benin divide time into years, months, weeks, and days, each of which are distinguished by a particular name; but in their division they make fourteen months to the year. They keep their sabbath

every fifth day, which is solemnly observed, particularly by the better sort, who, on the occasion, sacrifice cows, sheep, and goats; while the poorer sort kill dogs, cats, chickens, or whatever they are able to purchase. Those who are so distressed as not to be able to obtain any of these, are assisted by the others, in order that the festival may be universally kept.

They have two annual festivals. The first of these is in commemoration of their ancestors, when they not only sacrifice a great number of beasts, but also human beings; but the latter are generally malefactors sentenced to death, and reserved for these solemnities. If it happens that there are not so many criminals as are requisite on these occasions, (the number of which is 25,) the king orders his officers to parade the streets, and seize indifferently such persons as they meet not carrying lights. If the persons so seized are wealthy, they are permitted to purchase their redemption; but if poor, they are sacrificed on the day appointed. The slaves of great men so seized may be also ransomed, on condition that the masters find others to supply their place.

Their second annual festival, and which is by far the most considerable, is called the Coral Feast. It is celebrated in the month of May; and on the day it is held the king appears in public. As the ceremonies attending this festival are rather singular, we shall give the following description of them, as related by a person who was present, and saw the whole. This person says, that on the day appointed, the king came magnificently dressed into the second court of the palace, where, under a rich canopy, a seat was placed for him; as also others for his wives, and a great number of his principal officers. Soon after the king was seated the procession began, which being ended, the king removed from his throne, in order to sacrifice to the gods in the open air, and thereby began the feast. This action was accompanied with the universal and loud acclamations of the people. After passing a quarter of an hour in this manner, he returned to the former place, where he sat two hours, in order to give the remainder of the people time to perform their devotions. This done he returned into the palace. The rest of the day was spent in splendid treating and feasting, the king causing all kinds of provisions to be liberally distributed to the populace; and the grandees followed his example; so that nothing but joy was to be seen throughout the city. The reason why this is called the Coral Feast is, because at this time the king bestows the strings of coral on those whom he advances to any preferment, or post of honour, which he never does but on this festival, unless a particular urgency of state requires it.

In this kingdom the will of the monarch is an absolute law; but the chief direction of government is vested in the three great lords. Their laws are, in general, very mild. When a person of property dies, the right of inheritance devolves to the eldest son; but he is obliged to present a slave to the king, and another to the three great lords, with a petition that he may succeed his father in the same quality, which the king accordingly grants, and he is declared the lawful heir of all the possessions left by his father. He is not compelled to make any allowance to his younger brother, that being wholly left to his own discretion; but if his mother be alive, he must allow her a maintenance suitable to her rank. He takes his father's other wives home, especially those that have not had children, and, if he thinks proper, he uses them as his own. Those he disapproves of are obliged to work for a maintenance under his inspection, but he never cohabits with them. If the deceased leaves no children, the brother inherits the effects; and in case of deficiency of such heir, the next a-kin; but if no lawful heir appears, the whole becomes the property of the king.

Criminals are punished here in proportion to the nature of the offence. Doing any injury to an European is considered as a capital crime, and the punishment for such offence is thus executed: they take the offender,

offender, tie his hands behind his back, and blindfold him. After this the judge raises him up, so that his head hangs towards the ground, which the executioner cuts off with a hatchet; and separating the body into four quarters, leaves it to be devoured by the wild beasts.

If a person is found guilty of theft he is obliged to restore the goods and pay a fine; but if he is unable to do the latter he suffers corporally. If the robbery is committed on a grandee the punishment is death.

In cases of murder the criminal is punished with death, except the offence be committed by the king's son, or a grandee; in which case the offender is banished to the most distant part of the kingdom, and never permitted to return.

If a person kills another by accident he may purchase his life, by first burying the deceased, and afterwards producing a slave to suffer in his stead. When this slave is sacrificed the offender must bend his body, and touch the slave's knees with his forehead; after which he must pay a fine to the three great lords, when he obtains his freedom, and the relations of the deceased think a sufficient atonement has been made for the offence.

There are various punishments for adultery in proportion to the circumstances of the parties. If a common person surprises his wife in the fact he is entitled to all the effects of the person that has injured him; and the woman, after being severely drubbed by her husband, is totally discarded, being left to shift for herself the remainder of her life.

The better sort, in these cases, revenge themselves much the same way; but the relations of the offending party, in order to avail themselves of the scandal that might accrue to their family, frequently bring about a reconciliation, by paying a large pecuniary compliment to the injured husband, who, in this case, hushes up the matter, and apparently seems to forget the once unseasonable liberality of his wife.

Other crimes are punished by fine, which is proportioned to the nature of the offence; and if the culprit is not able to pay the fine levied, he is subject to corporal punishment.

The fines paid on these occasions are thus disposed of: the person injured is first satisfied, after which the governor has his share, and the remainder of the fine goes to the three great lords.

Having thus taken a general view of this kingdom, with the nature of its inhabitants, their manners, customs, laws, religion, &c. we shall now point out those places in it that are the most remarkable.

Description of the Cities and Towns of Benin, and the Massacre of the Natives of Meiberg.

THE chief city is Benin, the usual residence of the king. It is large and pleasantly situated on the banks of the river, about forty miles from its mouth. It contains a great number of streets, most of which are very spacious, and the houses uniformly built. The principal street is exceeding broad, and at least three miles in length: it is intersected by many cross streets and lanes, all of which are strait and of considerable extent; and the whole city is at least nine miles in circumference. The houses of the grandees are much higher than those of the commonalty, and are ascended by steps. At the entrance of each is a vestibule, or porch, which is every morning cleaned by the slaves, and spread with mats of straw. The inner chamber is square, with an opening in the center for the admission of light; and in these apartments they both sleep and eat, though they dress their viands in other places separate, having many offices under the same roof.

The king's palace is very extensive, superb and magnificent. It consists of several large squares surrounded with galleries, each of which has a portico, or gate, guarded by soldiers.

The inhabitants of Benin are all natives, no foreigner being permitted to reside in it. Some of them are very wealthy, and spend their whole time at court, leaving trade and agriculture to be executed by their wives and servants. These go to the adjacent villages, and either trade in merchandize, or serve for daily wages, and they are obliged to bring the greatest part of what they get to their masters, otherwise they would be sold for slaves.

A market is every day kept in the principal part of the city for the sale of provisions and merchandize. The former consists of dogs, of which they are very fond, roasted baboons and monkeys, bats and large rats, parrots, hens, lizards dried in the sun, fruits and palm wine. Their merchandize consists of cotton, elephants teeth, wooden platters, cups, and other household stuff; cotton cloth, iron instruments for fishing and tilling the ground, lances, darts and other weapons. A place is allotted for each kind of merchandize, and they are all disposed with great uniformity.

The present reduced state of the inhabitants of Benin arose from an irruption in consequence of the death of one of the road chiefs, who fell a sacrifice to the avarice of a former reigning monarch. His death was revenged by a very powerful party, who foiled the king's army in two onsets, and afterwards settled with the chief that headed them at a place about three days journey from the capital, so that the number of inhabitants was of course considerably lessened.

The other towns in this kingdom are chiefly remarkable for trade, and are most of them situated on the river Benin. The first of these is called Awerri, or Ouwerre, and belongs to a king, who is the only one that is independent of the king of Benin. The town stands about six miles from the mouth of the river, and here the Portuguese have a church and factory.

There is a trading village called Boedodoe, which contains about fifty houses, built with reeds and mud, and covered with leaves of trees. It is governed by a viceroy and some grandees, whose authority extends only to trifling matters, as civil causes, and raising taxes for the king; but if any thing considerable happens, they must state the matter to the court, and wait their determination.

Ogattou was once a considerable place, but it suffered so much in the wars, that it was almost laid waste: however, from its delightful situation the buildings of late years have considerably increased, and it seems as if time would restore it to its original importance.

Arebo, the center of commerce, is situated about 30 miles from the mouth of the river Benin. The Dutch and English had both factories here; but the latter having neglected their trade, the lodge fell down, and has never since been rebuilt; so that the former is the only European settlement in this part of the country.

Meiberg is a small but very neat place, and the houses are built with great uniformity. The Dutch had once a factory here, and were greatly respected by the natives; but during their stay a melancholy circumstance happened, occasioned by the indiscretion of the principal factor, that entirely overthrew them, the particulars of which are thus described by a late author: "N. Beeldsnyder, their last factor, having a violent passion for one of the negro-governor's wives, ravished her, which so enraged the injured husband, that he came with a body of armed men, and resolved to kill the adulterer, who narrowly escaped on board a ship, but in the flight was so wounded that he died. The Dutch company's director-general on the coast, not being rightly informed of the case, sent a vessel from El Mina, well manned, to Benin, with strict orders to revenge the murder. These soldiers so stretched their commission, that they killed, or took prisoners, every person in the town who could not escape. The king, being informed of this, and the occasion of the massacre, commanded the Negro-governor to be brought before him; and though he had done nothing but what seemed right, in defending the honour of his family,

yet the king caused him and his whole race to be put to death in the most cruel manner. The dead bodies of these miserable wretches were exposed to be devoured by the beasts, and their houses were razed to the ground, with strict orders that they should never be rebuilt." The Dutch, however, from these circumstances, made no farther attempt, and there has not been any European factory in this town ever since. It is remarkable that all the male slaves of this country are foreigners; for the natives cannot be sold for slaves, but are all free; though they bear the name of the king's slaves. A Dutch navigator asserts, that it is not allowed to export any male slaves sold in this country, but they may do what they will with the females.

Besides the river Benin, there are several other considerable ones in this kingdom, particularly the river Rio del Rey, which is very spacious and extensive. On its banks are a great number of villages, inhabited by people divided into two nations, one of which dwell along the upper part of the river, and the other towards the mouth; but they are always at enmity with each other. They are a strong, robust people; but poor, dishonest, and treacherous; and are very filthy both in their houses and persons. They go quite naked, smearing their bodies with oil, intermixed with a red. They plait their hair in various forms, file their teeth, and ornament their foreheads with strange marks, made with hot irons or pincers. In short, they are mere savages, and their only employment is fishing, they being total strangers either to mechanical arts or agriculture.

The Rio Kamarones is another large river, whose inhabitants are governed by a chief of their own, called Moneba. The people here carry on a considerable trade with the Europeans, having plenty of elephants teeth and slaves, which they sell at very reasonable rates. The goods which they take in exchange from the Europeans consist chiefly of iron and copper bars, brass pots and kettles, bugles or beads, ox horns, and steel files. The natives here are very lusty, tall, well-shaped, and have a remarkable smooth skin.

The river Rio Gabon is situated about fifteen leagues from Cape de Lopo Gonfalso, or the utmost point of the Gulph of Benin. It is a very large river, and the mouth of it is at least six miles across. About nine miles up the river are two islands, one of which takes its name from the king, and the other from the prince of this river, two great lords of Benin. But these islands have now but few inhabitants. The river is navigable for small ships several leagues up. There are many

villages on its banks; and the trade carried on here consists in elephants teeth, wax, and honey.

The inhabitants are very large, robust, and well-shaped; but in their dispositions fierce and cruel. The men are great thieves, and the women very abandoned.

The Negroes here are perfect strangers to agriculture, and live chiefly by hunting and fishing. The river abounds with fish, besides which there are great numbers of crocodiles and sea-horses; and on the banks of it are prodigious numbers of wild beasts, especially elephants, buffalos, and wild boars.

About 18 leagues from the river Gabon is Cape Lopo Gonfalso, which is the extreme limits of the Gulph of Guinea. It appears like a low flat island, but it is a long, narrow peninsula, stretching from the continent several leagues to sea. It has a good harbour either for anchoring or careening ships, especially for those homeward bound, provisions being not only plentiful, but also very cheap. On the shore are several huts, where the natives occasionally reside, as the European vessels stop for the above purposes; but the town they belong to is called Olibato, and is situated about six miles from the Cape. It is the residence of a chief, and the town contains about 300 houses, which are made with bull-rushes interwoven, and covered with palm-leaves. The natives are much more civilized than those of Rio Gabon, but they differ little in their dress, manners, and customs. The country abounds with wild beasts, as elephants, buffalos, wild boars, apes, monkeys, and other mischievous animals.

All vessels, as soon as they arrive at the Cape, fire off four guns, to alarm the country, and give notice of their arrival, when the people immediately repair from Olibato, and other inland places, to the Cape, and carry with them such articles as they have to dispose of, the principal of which are water, wood for fuel, and provisions. They always keep a stock of wood by them, that they may be ready to supply such vessels as stop at the Cape: they cut it in billets about two feet long, a boat load of which they generally sell for a bar of iron. They get their water out of a large pond near the Cape: it keeps good at sea, and is allowed by most sailors to be exceeding wholesome.

The other goods purchased here by the Europeans consist of elephants teeth, wax, honey, and cam-wood: and the articles sold to the natives are knives, iron bars, beads, old sheets, axes, brass basons, firelocks, powder, ball, and shot.

C H A P. XIII.

NIGRITIA, ETHIOPIA, OR NEGROLAND.

SECTION I.

Name. Boundaries. Extent. Commerce.

THE ancients called the natives of this country Ethiopians, Nigrites, and Melanes, that is, Negroes or Blacks, either from the river Niger, or the natural complexion of the people. Negroland is bounded on the north by the desert Zahara, on the south by Guinea and Benin, on the east by Abyssinia and Nubia, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. It lies between 10 and 20 degrees north latitude, is computed at 2200 miles in length, and 840 in breadth, and contains many provinces, and some European forts, which, differing in several respects, we shall, therefore, treat of them distinctly, in order to point out particulars.

The river Gambia is divided by many islands and sand banks, and its broadest channel does not exceed three leagues. At Baraconda, which is 500 miles from its mouth, it is navigable for vessels of 150 tons burthen.

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The season for making the voyage to this part is from December till June, when the river flows in a smooth, equal, and not very rapid stream; but during the rest of the year the passage up it is difficult, on account of the extraordinary swells occasioned by the rains, which fall in these countries with great violence.

The chief articles of commerce on the river Gambia are gold, elephants teeth, bees-wax, and slaves; the latter of whom are either prisoners taken in war, or persons stolen or condemned for crimes. The gold is of an excellent quality. The ivory, or elephants teeth, called by the natives morphel, is either found in the woods, or got by hunting and killing the beasts; and the larger the teeth the more valuable the ivory. Some of them are quite white, others yellow; but the difference of colour neither adds to or diminishes the value. Bees-wax is sold in great quantities about the river, and is made in cakes from 20 to 120 lb. weight. Gum-dragon is also brought from this country: it comes from a tree called pau de sangue, or blood-wood, from whence (an incision

incision being made in the tree) it oozes out drop after drop, till several lumps are formed, which are afterwards dried in the sun.

There are many kingdoms and petty states between the rivers Sierra Leona and Senegal, concerning which very little is known; but as better accounts are to be obtained of several provinces on the banks of the Gambia, we shall present them in the following order.

SECTION II.

Persons, Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the People of Mundingo. Description of the Palm Trees. Buildings, Furniture, Food, Dress, Marriages, divers Ceremonies, &c.

MUNDINGO is the largest and most populous place on the banks of the river Gambia. The Portuguese having settled in it ever since their conquest of it in the fourteenth century, and their descendants intermixed with the natives, there is little difference between them either as to their colour or shape; but as they still retain a corruption of the Portuguese language, and as they christen and marry by the help of a priest sent annually from St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verd Islands, they consider themselves as different from the Mundingoes as if they were really natives of Portugal; and the calling them Negroes is the greatest affront that can be offered, it being a term they only use for slaves.

This kingdom is of considerable extent. The natives are quite black, and have very disagreeable features, their lips being exceeding thick, and their noses remarkably broad and flat. In their dispositions they are rational and humane, and particularly civil to strangers. They are, in general, very brisk and lively; but if affronted, impetuous and revengeful.

The better sort take a pride in keeping a prodigious number of slaves; but they treat them in a very humane manner. The females, in particular, are ornamented with necklaces, bracelets, and ear-rings, made of coral, amber, and silver, to a considerable value. Several of the natives have many slaves born in their families; and though in some parts of Africa these are sold, yet in Mundingo it would be thought not only indiscreet, but criminal: nor is ever any family slave sold, except for such crimes as would have authorised its being done had he been free. Indeed, if there are many slaves in the family, and one of them commits a crime, the master cannot sell him without the joint consent of the rest; for if he does, they will desert him, and seek protection in another kingdom.

They have a kind of drum here of a very large size, called a tang-tong, which they only beat on the approach of an enemy, or on some very extraordinary occasion, to call the inhabitants of the neighbouring towns to their assistance; and when this is beat in the night time, it may be heard at the distance of six or seven miles.

Europeans, when ill treated by the natives, apply to the alcaid, or head man of the town, who is appointed to do justice on such occasions. He is called the white man's king, and has otherwise great power. He also decides all quarrels, and has the first voice in all conferences relative to public transactions.

The palm tree, which is remarkable, is very strait and smooth, and some of them grow to the height of 100 feet. From the trunk of the tree the natives extract a liquor called palm wine, which, in colour, greatly resembles whey. To effect this they make an incision at the top of the tree, to which they apply gourd bottles, and into these the liquor is conveyed by means of a pipe made of leaves. The wine is very sweet in its taste, and, if drank as soon as drawn, very purgative; but if kept two or three days, it ferments, grows strong, and becomes not only palatable, but also very wholesome.

The natives climb these trees with surprising agility, the manner of doing which is thus: they take a piece of the bark of a tree formed in the shape of a hoop, with which they enclose themselves and the tree, the hoop being afterwards secured: they then fix the hoop under their hams, and resting their back against it, and their feet against the tree, climb up with surprising expedition. Sometimes, indeed, they meet with a fatal accident, which either arises from their missing their step, or the bark on which they rest not being properly secured.

The habitations of the common people are very low and mean. Their furniture consists only of a few common necessities, such as earthen vessels for their food, wooden bowls, plates, dishes, &c. but they have neither chairs, tables, or beds, a mat supplying the place of all three; for on that they sit, eat, and sleep. Among the better sort, indeed, the master of the house is distinguished by having a bed, which consists of a kind of hurdle laid upon pieces of wood, and elevated about two feet from the floor.

Rice, pulse, and Indian corn are their principal food, which they mix with boiling water, or broth made from the flesh of crocodiles: they like the latter the best, and are not only fond of the flesh of the crocodiles, but also their eggs. Their common drink is water, but they sometimes use palm wine and mead; and, if they can meet with it, will not refuse rum and brandy. They sit at their meals, and take up the victuals with the fingers of the right hand only, considering it indecent to touch either their food or lips with the left.

The dress of the women consists of a piece of cotton tied round the waist, from whence it reaches to the knees. The upper part of the body is naked.

They enter into the marriage state at an early period. Some of them are even contracted as soon as born, and the parents can never after break-off the engagement. The men, however, can refuse accepting them when at a proper age; neither dare the girl marry any other without his consent. Before a man takes his wife, he is obliged to make a present to her parents of 200 cola (a fruit that grows in the inland parts of the country, and somewhat resembles a horse chestnut,) two iron bars, and two cows.

The women pay such distinguished respect to their husbands, that if business calls them a day or two from home, when they return, their wives salute them on their knees; and they shew their humility by always placing themselves in that posture when they give them drink, either at their meals, or at any other time.

A new born child is dipped in cold water several times in the day, at each of which, after having dried up the water with a cloth, they rub it over with palm oil, particularly the back bone, small of the back, elbows, neck, knees, and hips. When born, they are of an olive complexion, and sometimes do not become black till they are two months old. They are not born with flat noses, but as that shape is greatly admired, their mothers or nurses, whenever they wash them, press down the upper part of their nose with their fingers, and, from its natural tenderness at that time, the compression has the wished-for effect.

They give them a name about a month after they are born; and the only ceremony attending this is, shaving the head, and rubbing it well over with palm oil.

In case of death, the friends and acquaintance of the deceased cry over him for two days, and such of his relations as are not on the spot, when they hear of it, though at a considerable distance, will testify the same kind of lamentation as if they were really present with the deceased. Previous to interment the body is wrapped in white cotton cloth, and borne on a bier preceded by Negroes, carrying divers instruments, on which they strike to produce doleful sounds, and followed by mourners uttering hideous cries and lamentations. The grave is generally made near the sepulchres of their ancestors in some desolate spot, where the corpse is deposited about three feet in the ground, at which time

time the whole assembly bow, and give one general shriek. They generally throw into the grave the principal furniture and utensils of which the deceased was possessed. They lay sticks across the grave even with the surface of the earth, on which they place straw, or the leaves of trees, so thick as to prevent the mould from getting into the grave; and on the top of these they lay the earth, which they trample hard down with their feet. They commonly erect a hut over the grave, to secure it from rain, and preserve the memory of the deceased.

The husbands, to render their power as complete as possible, compel their wives to obedience by all the force of fear and terror. For this purpose they have a figure about eight feet high, made of the bark of trees, and dressed in a long coat, with a whisp of straw on the head, and made in the form of a cap. It is called a Mumbo Jumbo, and when any controversy arises between a man and his wife, this strange figure is sent for to determine the dispute, which generally terminates in favour of the man.

The Mundingoes have a language peculiar to themselves, which is more generally spoken on both sides the river than any other. A person who is well acquainted with this language may travel from the mouth of the river quite to the country of the Joncoes, or Merchants, so called from their buying yearly a vast number of slaves, and bringing them to the lower parts of the river for sale. They have also a corrupt kind of Portuguese, which is generally used by the natives when they trade with the Europeans.

Their priests are highly revered, inasmuch that if persons of the first distinction happen to meet with one of them, they immediately form a circle round him, and, falling on their knees, solicit his benediction.

There are a sort of people called Floops on the borders of the kingdom of Mundingoe who are in a manner wild, and inveterate enemies to their neighbours. Their country is of considerable extent, but they have not any king, and are entirely independent of each other; notwithstanding which, they are so numerous that the Mundingoes, with all their force, cannot conquer them. Their towns are surrounded by a kind of fortification made of sticks drove in the ground close together, and covered with clay. They have the character of being very grateful when they receive any favour; but if any injury is offered them, they will never forgive, or suffer it to pass unrevenged.

SECTION III.

The Gum Desert, with a Description of the Natives of the Kingdoms of the Jolloiffs and Pholeys.

THIS part of Negroland, where the trade is carried on with the Moors, is remarkable for producing great quantities of gum, and it is distinguished by the name of the Desert, from the small number of its inhabitants.

To the east of this desert is a place called Engerbel, where the king of the Jolloiffs has his palace, which consists only of a large number of huts, built much like those of the other Negroes, but only more spacious.

The whole country, from the northern bank of the river Gambia to the lake Cajor, is called in general the kingdoms of the Jolloiffs, though divided among several petty princes. Its extent, from north to south, is about 300 miles, and from the sea-coast eastward it is near 400 miles.

The Jolloiffs, or people who inhabit this country, are blacker than the Mundingoes, and better featured, their noses not being so broad, nor their lips so thick.

The men, though naturally courageous, are good natured, modest, and hospitable, more particularly to strangers.

The manners, customs, ceremonies, religion, &c. here, are much the same as in the kingdom of Mundingoe.

Adjoining to the kingdom of the Jolloiffs lies that of the Pholeys, or Foulies. It extends along the river Gambia, from east to west, near 600 miles.

The Pholeys are not so black as the Jolloiffs, but rather of a tawney complexion, and greatly resemble the Arabs, whose language they generally speak, though they have one peculiar to themselves. They live in herds or clans, and form their buildings on such a construction, that they are easily removed from one place to another. Their country is very fertile, and produces plentiful crops of large and small millet, cotton, tobacco, peas, rice, and other pulse. Their goats and sheep are exceeding fine, and their oxen so large, that the French buy up all their hides at a very great price. They are very fond of European merchandizes, and treat the traders that bring them with great civility. They use a great variety of musical instruments, and are great lovers of dancing.

Near their houses they plant tobacco and corn. The women that live among the Europeans make cakes of the flour, and convert it to such other uses as are generally practised in England.

The Pholeys are very temperate in their living, and remarkably industrious and frugal. As they raise much more corn and cotton than they consume, they sell it at a reasonable rate to strangers, to whom they are very civil and hospitable. They also supply the wants of their neighbours; and have even been known to distress themselves in assisting the Mundingoes, who, in some bad seasons, would have otherwise been exposed to the ravages of dreadful famines.

Though remarkable for the mildness of their temper, they are far from being deficient in courage. Their arms consist of the lance, bows and arrows, short cutlasses, and muskets, all which they use with great alertness.

They frequently remove their towns from one place to another, but commonly choose a spot near the Mundingoes, who think themselves happy in having such useful neighbours; and, indeed, there is hardly any Mundingoe town of note up the river, that has not a Pholey town or plantation near it.

They are very expert in the management of cattle, and are excellent huntsmen. They not only kill lions, tigers, and other wild beasts, but also go in companies together to hunt elephants, whose teeth they sell, and the flesh they dry in the same manner as bacon is cured in England.

Many of them speak the Arabic language, and they are, in general, of the Mahometan religion.

The king of the Pholeys is very powerful, and not only receives homage from the king of the Jolloiffs, but all the great men of that kingdom are his vassals.

There are several towns and villages in the kingdom of Pholey, in which a trade is carried on for divers commodities common to the country.

It may not be improper, before we quit this section, to insert a remarkable story of one Job Ben Solomon, of the race of the Pholeys, and son to the high priest of Bundo, in Forta, who was sold as a slave, came to England, and received distinguished honours from the royal family and nobility; the circumstances attending which we shall take from Mr. Moore, who particularly describes them, and whose relation must be the most genuine, as he was in company with him after his return to his own country.

Some years ago, as this person was travelling on the south side of the Gambia, with a servant, he was robbed and seized by order of the king of a country a little within the land, who sold both him and his man for slaves to one captain Pyke, who sailed with him to Maryland. The Pholeys, his humane countrymen, would have redeemed him, had he not been carried out of the river before they had notice of his being a slave. Job, on his arrival at Maryland, was sold to a planter, who, finding he had very distinguished abilities, treated him with great respect; and at the expiration of twelve months, Job had the good fortune to have a letter of his

his own writing, in the Arabic tongue, conveyed to England. This letter coming to the hands of Mr. Oglethorpe, he sent it to Oxford to be translated, which being done, it gave him such satisfaction, and inspired him with so good an opinion of the author, that he immediately sent orders to have him bought of his master. This happened a little before that gentleman's setting out for Georgia; and before his return from thence, Job arrived in England, where being brought to the acquaintance of Sir Hans Sloane, he was found to be a perfect master of the Arabic tongue, by his translating several manuscripts and inscriptions on medals. Sir Hans Sloane recommended him to the Duke of Montague, who, being pleased with his genius and capacity, the agreeableness of his behaviour, and the sweetness of his temper, introduced him to court, where he was graciously received by the royal family, and most of the nobility, who honoured him with many marks of their favour.

After he had continued in England about fourteen months, he determined to return to his native country, from an earnest desire he had to see the high-priest his father. On his leaving England he received many noble presents from her Majesty Queen Caroline, his Royal Highness the Duke of Cumberland, the Duke of Montague, the Earl of Pembroke, several ladies of quality, and the Royal African Company; the latter of whom ordered their agents to shew him the greatest respect.

Soon after his arrival at James's Fort, Job expressed a desire of going up to a town called Joar, to converse with some of his countrymen, and accordingly went along with Mr. Moore. In the evening, as he was sitting under a great tree at the creek of Damofensa, there came six or seven of the very people who had three years before made a slave of him at about thirty miles distance from that place. Such was his rage and indignation, that he was for attacking them with his broad sword; nor could Mr. Moore, without the greatest difficulty, suppress his resentment. Enquiring concerning the king their master, Job was informed that he was accidentally shot by the very pistol which was amongst the goods for which he sold him to Captain Pyke. Transported with the information, he devoutly returned thanks to Mahomet for making his persecutor die by the very articles for which he had sold him to slavery. Turning to Mr. Moore, he made some pertinent remarks on the justice of the Divine Being in the instance before them, and very ingeniously observed, that he ought to forgive him, because had he not been sold, he never should have seen England, known the language, or have been acquainted with his noble and liberal patrons. In every part of the country he highly applauded the English, and greatly possessed the Pholeys with an high opinion of them. When Mr. Moore embarked for England he gave him letters for his patrons, and, embracing him, most affectionately declared, that his days should be spent in endeavouring to do good to the English, who had released him from slavery, and conferred on him an immense obligation.

SECTION IV.

Settlements of the Europeans, and other Places, on the river Gambia.

THE English have several settlements on the banks of the river Gambia. The principal is that at James's Island. It has a fort, and sloops and boats for the convenience of conveying provisions, as well as articles of commerce. The English have also factories at Gillifree, Vintain, Tancrowall, and Joar, but they are greatly inferior to that at James's Island. The chief articles of the commerce of these factories are slaves, ivory, hides, and wax.

There are many provinces which may be considered as petty royalties, being subject to their respective kings or chiefs. These kings have their retinue, and other

tokens of honour. They make war against each other, ransack towns, take prisoners, and sell them for such commodities as best suit their inclinations.

Besides the English, there are French and Portuguese settlements on the river Gambia; and there are many other towns on that river which, from their insignificance, it is needless to mention.

The natives of these parts much resemble those of Guinea in their persons, dress, manners, and customs, but they have some peculiarities, and in particular the women, who tie handkerchiefs round their heads, leaving the crown bare. Those who have not handkerchiefs supply their place by using a slip of blue or white cotton cloth.

SECTION V.

Description of the river Senegal, and the places situated on its banks; with the Persons, Manners and Customs of the Natives.

GEOPHAPHERS divide the river Niger into three branches, under the distinct names of the Gambia, the Senegal, and the Sierra Leona, which are each of them considered as rivers of great extent.

The banks of the Senegal are very fertile, and beautifully variegated. Near the river are lofty trees inhabited by various sorts of birds, some of which are very small, others large, and many of them exceeding handsome, and of the brightest colours. There are also great numbers of squirrels and monkeys; and the more distant parts abound with lions and elephants, the latter of which have not that ferocity in them that is natural to those in other countries, for they will not attempt to attack any one they meet unless first molested. Some parts of the low grounds abound with a sort of thorny trees which run to a prodigious height, and bear large bunches of yellow flowers that have an odoriferous scent. The barks of these trees are of different colours, some being black, others white, green, or red; and whatever colour the bark is of, the timber is of the same, and from its substance appears to be a species of the ebony.

The principal kingdoms and places situated on the banks of the Senegal are the following: Guber or Gubur, Zanzara, Cano, Casena, Zegzeg, Guangara, Bito, Temia, Dauma, Gamo and Melli.

Some of these places are fertile, and yield plenty of grain; others are barren, and some are mountainous. The villagers are chiefly shepherds and herdsmen: in the towns are a few artificers, and some in the country places apply themselves to agriculture. The complexion of the natives is jet black, and their dispositions are naturally savage, as are consequently their manners. There are, however, exceptions, as the inhabitants of some places are represented as treating strangers with civility. It may be added, that though poverty is their general lot, valuable articles of commerce are found in some parts which necessarily redound to the emolument of the inhabitants. They have their petty kings, who assume all the parade of mock-royalty.

At Kachao is a Portuguese colony of considerable extent and traffic. To defend the town from the attacks of the Papells, an idolatrous and barbarous people, the Portuguese have erected a fort, on which they keep a constant watch through fear of a sudden alarm. The inhabitants are in general mulattoes. The Portuguese are jealous to an excessive degree. They have a church and convent, a government civil and military, and a garrison composed of transports.

The natives of Kachao employ the principal part of their time in the cultivation of a plant called manioc, which is used instead of bread not only here but in several other parts of Africa. It is not fit for use till after it has undergone a tedious preparation. Its first skin must be scraped: it must be then washed, rasped and pressed, to extract the aqueous parts that are flow
poison,

poison, against which there is no remedy known. They then roast it, as that causes every noxious particle it might still contain totally to evaporate. When there appears no more steam it is taken off the iron plate on which it was roasted, and suffered to cool; for it is no less dangerous to eat it hot than raw.

The root of the manioc grated and reduced into little grains by roasting, is called flour of manioc. The paste of manioc is called cassava, which is converted into a cake by roasting without moving it. It would be dangerous to eat as much cassava as flour of manioc, because the former is less roasted. Both of them keep a long time, and are very nourishing, but a little difficult of digestion. Though this food seems at first insipid, there are many white people who prefer it to the best wheat.

The manioc plant is also cultivated and brought to no less perfection by the inhabitants of the island of Bissao.

SECTION VI.

SIERRA LEONA.

Name. Soil. Climate. Productions in general. Persons, Manners, and Customs of the Natives.

SIERRA Leona, according to some, is so called from the river of that name, which is supposed to have been derived from the noise of the sea against its shores, resembling the roaring of lions. Others say it was first called so by the Portuguese, from the great number of lions that infest the neighbouring mountains. It also goes by the names of Tagrin and Mitomba, the latter of which it preserves for about 80 miles above the mouth of the river. On the south side of it is a town called Las Magoas, where none but the Portuguese are permitted to reside for trade; and the natives come down the river to barter with the French and English, when there are any of their ships in the bay.

Here are several small islands, the principal of which are Tasso and Bense. Tasso is a large flat island, near three leagues in circumference, where the company's slaves have a good plantation. The chief part of the island is covered with wood, among which are silk cotton trees of a prodigious size; and some parts of it produce good indigo.

The climate of this country is in general very unwholesome, particularly in the mountainous parts, where, during four months in the year, it rains, thunders, and is so intolerably hot, that the people are obliged to keep close in their huts; and the air is corrupted in such a manner by the lightning, that all animal food is reduced in a few hours to a state of putrefaction. The flat open country, however, is not so bad; for though in summer the heat is excessive in the former part of the day, yet it is very temperate in the afternoon, from the refreshing breezes that generally blow from the south-west.

The banks of the Sierra Leona are lined with mangrove trees, the leaves of which exactly resemble those of an European laurel. The whole country abounds in millet and rice, which is the principal food of the natives. It also produces great plenty of oranges, lemons, bananas, Indian figs, ananas, pompions, water melons, yams, potatoes, wild pears, white plumbs, and several sorts of pulse.

Here are the palm, the cocoa, and the cotton tree; and on the mountains are abundance of palm and laurel trees. Indeed, the whole abounds with trees of various sorts so close together, that it may be called one continued forest.

They have a great plenty of deer, hogs, goats, and fowls, which the natives sell to the Europeans for a small quantity of brandy, a liquor they prefer to all others.

In the mountains are great numbers of wild animals, as elephants, lions, tigers, wild boars, and roe-bucks.

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also apes of several sorts, and serpents, the latter of which are so large that, it is said, they will swallow a child whole. The apes, monkeys, and baboons, are so numerous, that they make great destruction in the plantations.

In the woods are great numbers of birds of different sizes and plumage, as pigeons, parrots, paroquets, and Guinea-hens, the latter of which are about the size of a pheasant, and are very beautiful; but it is difficult to catch them on account of the thickness of the trees. They have also several other sorts of fowl, among which are white pelicans as large as swans, herons, curlews, boobies, and a bird called ox-eyes.

The bay and entrance of the river abound with a great variety of fish, as raies, thornbacks, and a fish called the old-wife. There are also gar-fishes, cavalloes, sharks, sword-fishes, dog-fishes, and one called the shoe-maker, having on each side the mouth pendants like barbel, and the noise they make is something like that of a hog's grunting. Among the fish, however, caught here, the most common are old wives, pilchards, the becune, the monk or angel-fish, and the mullet.

The fish called the old-wife is shaped much like a tench, is about nine inches in length, and has large scales. It is mottled with red, yellowish and brown lines placed alternately, and running from the head to the tail, being five or six in number. The snout is oblong, and turns upwards; and the lips are thick, fleshy, and project from the jaws, but the mouth is small. The teeth are serrated, but not very sharp; and the fins are mottled with red, blue, and yellow. The tail, when expanded, is roundish; and the fish taken altogether is exceeding beautiful.

The pilchard is much like a herring, but not so large, and the body is broader. It has not any teeth, either in the jaws, the tongue, or the palate. The flesh is firmer, and by some preferred to that of a herring. They are fish of passage, and, like herrings, swim in considerable shoals.

The becune greatly resembles a pike, but only larger, some of them being frequently caught upwards of eight feet in length. It is a greedy fish, and dangerous to be met with in the water, because it can bite much easier than the shark; and so fearless, that it will not be driven away by any noise that can be made. The flesh has the same taste as a fresh-water pike, but there is often great danger in eating it; for unless the teeth are white, and the liver sweet, it is poisonous.

The monk, or angel-fish, is between a shark and a skate, and grows to a large size, often weighing upwards of 160 pounds. The colour on the back and sides is of a dusky ash, and the belly is white. The mouth is broad, and placed at the end of the head, in which it differs from other flat gristly fish. The head is roundish at the extremity; and there are three rows of teeth in each jaw, each row consisting of 18, so that there are 108 teeth in all. The tongue is broad, and sharp at the end; and the nostrils are wide, being placed on the upper lip, and filled with a sort of slime. The eyes are of a middle size, placed not far from the mouth, and do not look directly up, but sideways. Instead of gills it has holes like the thornback. Near the head are two fins that look much like wings, for which reason it is called the angel-fish. On the extremities of these fins, near the corners, there are short, sharp, and crooked prickles; as there are also on the lowermost fins, which are placed near the vent. Below the vent are also two fins; and the tail is forked. The flesh is so rank, and of so disagreeable a taste, that it is little used; and the chief value of the fish consists in its skin, which is used in making cases for instruments.

The mullet greatly resembles a dace; the head is almost square, and flat at the top, the nose sharp, and the lips thick. It has large scales, not only on the body, but also on the head, and the covers of the gills. The back is of a blueish colour, and the belly white. The lateral lines are variegated alternately with black and white. The eyes have no other skin than their own coats,

coats, and the forward fin is radicated with five long spines. It has not any teeth, but the tongue is roughish, and there are two rough bones on each side of the palate. It has also a bone beset with prickles at each corner of the mouth, and, when at its full growth, is about 18 inches long. These fish generally go in great shoals, and are so sagacious, that when surrounded with a net, the whole shoal will frequently escape by leaping over it; for when one takes the lead, the rest will immediately follow. Oppian, in his natural history, takes notice of this circumstance, and his observations on it are thus translated :

The mullet, when encircling seines enclose,
The fatal threads and treach'rous bosom knows.
Instant he rallies all his vig'rous pow'rs,
And faithful aid of ev'ry nerve implores;
O'er battlements of cork updarting flies,
And finds from air th' escape that sea denies.
But should the first attempt his hopes deceive,
And fatal space th' imprison'd fall receive,
Exhausted strength no second leap supplies;
Self-doom'd to death the prostrate victim lies
Resign'd, with painful expectation waits,
Till thinner elements complete his fates.

The mullet was in great estimation among the Romans, and bore an exceeding high price. The money given for one in the days of Juvenal is a striking instance of the luxury and extravagance of that age. It is mentioned by that author in his 4th satire, and is thus translated by Mr. Dryden :

— " The lavish slave
" Six thousand pieces for a mullet gave,
" A sesterce for each pound."

And Pliny, who also lived in the days of Juvenal, mentions one Asinius Celer, a man of consular dignity, who was infinitely more lavish than the epicure mentioned by Juvenal; for he gave 8000 mummy, or 64l. 11s. 6d. for a fish of so small a size as a mullet.

Such, indeed, was the luxury of the times, that there were stew-pans in the eating-rooms, so that the fish could at once be brought from under the table and placed upon it. They even put the mullets in transparent vases, that they might be entertained with the various changes of its colour while it lay expiring.

The great plenty of fish found in the bay and river of Sierra Leona are of infinite service to the European sailors, not only for provisions, but also for traffick; for the natives are so indolent, that they will not be at the trouble to catch them, but content themselves with such as are left by the ebb tides among the rocks.

On the sides of the bay are great plenty of oysters, some of which are of such a size, that one of them would serve a moderate man for a meal; but they are so tough as to be scarce eatable, unless first boiled, and then fried in small pieces.

The trees that grow on the sides of the bay make excellent haunts for crocodiles; as also for the manatea, or Sea-cow, which are here in great abundance.

The manatea, or sea-cow, is supposed by some to be an amphibious creature, but this opinion has been sufficiently controverted; for it is always found in large rivers or bays, and feeds upon sea-weeds that grow near the shore. The skin is thick, rough, bare, and scarcely penetrable. The body is long, and the head very small in proportion to it. These animals have no teeth, but instead thereof two strong white stones, that run the whole length of both jaws. The nostrils resemble those of an horse. The eyes are fixed in the center of the head. The breasts are placed between the arms, one under each, are of a convex form, and about a foot and a half in diameter. They are hard, rough, and wrinkled; and when they give suck, the teats are four inches long.

These animals keep together in large companies, and are very careful of their young. They bring them forth in autumn, and have but one at a time. The manatea

has no voice or cry, and the only noise it makes is in fetching its breath. The fat, which lies between the cuticle and the skin, when exposed to the sun, has a fine smell and taste: it has also this peculiar property, that the heat of the sun will not spoil it, or make it become greasy. The taste is like the oil of sweet almonds, and the only effect it has on the body is that of keeping it open. The fibres and lean parts are like beef, but more red and harsh, and may be kept a great while in the hottest weather without tainting. The fat of the young ones is like pork, and the lean greatly resembles veal. In the head are four stones of different sizes, which are somewhat like bones, and are used in medicine. They are said to be good against agues, and to cleanse the kidneys of gravel. Hoffman affirms they are exceeding useful in cases of epilepsy.

When the negroes catch these creatures they go in a canoe, and paddle towards it with as little noise as possible, it being exceeding quick in hearing. As soon as they find themselves near enough, the man who is placed ready at the head of the canoe strikes a harpoon fixed at the end of a long pole into it, and then lets go. The beast immediately makes towards the mangroves, and the water being shallow they follow it close, and repeat the strokes till they have wearied it out, when they drag it ashore, and complete their conquest.

The inhabitants of Sierra Leona are not so black as those of the neighbouring countries; neither have they such flat noses or thick lips. The men are in general tall and well made, of a chearful disposition, and not given to quarrel: the women are short and robust, owing to their being constantly employed in labour; for besides the business of housewifery, they work hard in tillage, make palm oil, and spin cotton.

Their dress resembles that of the country in general. They are naturally temperate and sober; and though they are exceeding fond of brandy and other spirituous liquors, yet they never drink to excess, considering drunkenness as one of the greatest crimes that can be committed.

Their houses or huts are low, and thatched with straw: some are round, some square, and others are oblong; and most of them are ornamented in the front with two wings of a spiral form. They are kept very clean, being swept at least once every day.

Their furniture consists of two or three earthen pots to boil their victuals in, a gourd or two to fetch palm wine, and half a gourd for a cup; a few earthen dishes, a basket or two for the wife to gather cockles in, and a knapsack for the husband, made of the bark of trees, to carry his provision when he goes abroad. Their bedstead is made of billets of wood laid across each other, on which they lay a mat, and sleep without any covering.

Their weapons are swords, daggers, darts, bows and arrows. The points of their arrows are infected with the juice of a poisonous fruit, which is so inconceivably subtle and quick, that wherever it strikes it is sure to prove fatal. Some of them have also guns, which they are very fond of, and use with great dexterity.

Their food consists chiefly of roots, herbs, fruits, cockles and oysters; and their common drink is water. They plant about their houses gourds, potatoes, pumpions, and tobacco, the latter of which they are very fond of, particularly in smoking.

They are very fond of dancing, and generally spend their evenings in that diversion. Their music consists of two or three drums made of a hollow piece of wood, and covered with the skin of a kid.

Every town or village has one peculiar house, to which the women send their daughters at a certain age, who are there taught for a year to sing, dance, and perform other exercises, by an old man appointed for that purpose; and when the year is expired he leads them to the market-place, where they publicly exhibit such performances as they have been taught at school. During

During this time, if any of the young men are disposed to marry, they make choice of those they like best, without regard either to birth or fortune. When the man has declared his intention, the parties are considered as actually married, provided the bridegroom can make some presents to the bride's parents, and to the old man who was her tutor.

When they bury their dead they put into their graves all their best goods, and erect a roof over it, which they cover with linen cloth. The corpse is always attended to the grave by a number of people hired as mourners, who howl and cry in proportion as they are paid for their attendance.

The Munding negroes, who are strict Mahometans, have frequently endeavoured to propagate their religion among these people; but they have ever rejected it, and still follow their own maxims. They believe in a future state, but they do not worship any living creature whatever, nor even the sun or moon. They have many superstitious notions, and pay great respect to their fetishes, or charms, which they constantly carry in a bag about their necks, and other parts of their bodies.

The river of Sierra Leona separates this country into two kingdoms, that of Bulon, or Bulm, to the north, and that of Burre to the south. The former of these

kingdoms lies very low and flat, but the soil is fertile and produces great quantities of rice, millet and maize, of which they make excellent bread. The natives are very fond of the English and Portuguese, many of whom inhabit that part of the country, and they take great pains to affect their manners and maxims.

The kingdom of Burre is a much more open country than that of Bulm, and near it is that long ridge of mountains called Sierra Leona, the admiration of all strangers. There are so many caves and dens about these mountains, that when a single gun is fired from a ship in the bay, the echo is so often and distinctly repeated, and the clap so loud and sharp, that they seem to be the report of several cannon.

The residence of the king of Burre is about eight leagues from the mouth of the river. It is composed of about three hundred houses, which are round, and built all one way. The king's house, or rather his huts, are in the center of the village, and resemble those of his subjects. Some of them are a little larger, which he keeps for the Europeans, or strangers that visit him.

The river of Sierra Leona has been long frequented by the English and French, in order to carry on a commerce with the people who live on its boundaries.

C H A P. XIV.

BILEDULGERID, ZAARA, or the DESART, and TOMBUTO.

THE region comprizing the places above-mentioned is situated to the northward of the river Senegal, and forms a vast track covered with burning sands, exhibiting to the view a striking scene of horror and desolation. To afford as distinct an account of it as possible, we shall describe it according to the foregoing division, beginning with Biledulgerid.

SECTION I.

BILEDULGERID.

Name. Extent. Situation. Climate. Persons. Customs, Manners, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THIS country, which was the antient Numidia, derived its modern name from the Arabic words *Biled-el gerid*, signifying the Land of Dates, because it abounds with that kind of fruit more than any other country in Africa, insomuch that it can supply the adjacent parts with it, in exchange for wheat, which here is scarce.

It is of an oblong form, extending from 24 to 30 deg. north latitude. It is bounded by Morocco on the north, by Negroland on the south, by the inland parts of Africa on the east, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. It is computed at 2500 miles in length, and 350 in breadth. The climate is sultry and unwholesome, and the people are lean and swarthy with frizzled features. Their eyes are inflamed by the reflection of the sun beams from the white hard soil and the showers of dust and sand driven by the high winds that blow here, at certain seasons, with such violence as sometimes to bury men and cattle under heaps of it.

The inhabitants are composed chiefly of Arabs, who live in tents ranging from place to place in quest of food and plunder. There are among them some of the antient Africans, who live with some degree of order in towns and villages, and are supplied with most conveniences by the Arabs.

The Arabs think themselves the nobler race, and being perfectly free and independent, frequently enter

for pay into the service of the neighbouring princes when they are at war.

They are fond of hunting, and their principal object is the ostrich, of which they make great advantage, for they eat the flesh, exchange their feathers for corn and other commodities, use the talons as pendants for the ears, their fat as a medicine, and convert their skins into pouches and knapsacks; so that every part is employed in some necessary purpose.

The neck and head of this huge animal of the feathered kind are remarkable, being shaped much like those of a camel. Its head rises to the height of a man on horseback, and often higher: its wings are very strong, but too short to raise it from the ground: however, assisted by these they run a great pace. The legs and thighs of this bird are like those of a heron, allowance being made for the different proportion. Each foot has three claws armed with horn to facilitate its march. The eggs are as large as the head of a young child, and which the female hides in the sands, and leaves to be hatched by the heat of the sun. This disposition, which seems to manifest so much disregard to her young, is taken notice of in the Book of Job, and certainly argues great want of that precaution observable in other animals. The ostrich shews uncommon stupidity in running to hide the head, and in particular the eyes, when pursued, behind a tree, leaving the body exposed to the view of the hunters. The assertion of this animal eating and digesting iron has much the air of fable, for though they may swallow small pieces of that metal as other birds do pebbles, it is not to derive any nourishment from them, but only to bruise and grind the food in their stomachs, to moderate the operation of an excessive heat, or, by its weight, to open a passage into the intestines.

The Arabs likewise eat the flesh of goats and camels, and their drink is the liquor or broth in which the flesh is boiled. They chiefly use dates instead of bread, but they have some corn and pulse, which they purchase from the neighbouring countries. They have small horses that are principally used in hunting, and are very serviceable in plundering expeditions; on both which occasions the better sort are attended by their

their slaves, and the rest by their wives, who look after their horses, and do other the most menial services.

They call themselves Mahometans, but seem to know little either of that or any other religion.

Some of these Arabs wander from one end of the country to the other with their cattle, owning no superior; others have their particular lords or governors; and a third sort are subject or tributary to the Turks, who hold some parts of this territory, as those towards the west are to Morocco and Fez. On the whole, however, they are a wild and inhospitable people.

There are two cities within the limits of Biledulgerid, that were once famed for their buildings, fortifications, and the number of their inhabitants. These are called Touléra and Capfa. They are degenerated into mean, obscure places, inhabited by some of the ancient Africans, and occasionally by the wandering Arabs.

SECTION II.

ZAARA, ZAHARA, OR THE DESART.

Name. Extent. Divisions. Soil. Climate. Productions. Inhabitants. Description of the several Provinces.

ZAARA, so called from the Arabic word, which signifies a Desert, is a vast and inhospitable country, extending from the Atlantic Ocean on the west, to the kingdom and desert of Barca on the east, that is, from the 8th degree of west, to the 26th degree of east longitude; and from Biledulgerid on the north, to the river Niger, which separates it from Negroland on the south. It is about 2400 miles in length, and 660 in breadth. The Arabs divide it into three parts, by the names of Cahel, Zahara, and Asgar, that is, the sandy, the stoney, and the marshy. Modern geographers, however, have divided it into seven provinces, namely, Zanhaga, Zuenziga, Targa, Lemta, Berdona, Bornou, and Gagoa.

The soil in general being very dry and sandy, and the climate exceeding hot, it cannot be very fertile; yet it is said to be so healthy, that the inhabitants live to a great age; and that the people of other countries, when afflicted with illness, retire to this for the benefit of their healths, which is generally attended with the wished-for success.

Those parts of it that lie on the banks of the river Senegal, being better watered and inhabited, on account of the great commerce arising from that river, produce several kinds of grain, as wheat, barley, and millet. They have also some vegetables, and a great variety of delicious fruits.

Besides camels and horses, there is great plenty of a domestic animal called Adim naim, which are about the size of an ass, and greatly resemble that animal about the ears; but in other respects they are like our sheep. The males are only distinguished from the females by having horns; but they are both of a size, and their wool equally good. They are not only exceeding tame, but also very strong, and will carry a man on their backs for several miles; besides which, their flesh is very excellent food.

This country is greatly infested with wild beasts, as lions and tigers; also with great numbers of scorpions, vipers, and other venomous creatures; and, at particular seasons, locusts are so numerous as to destroy the principal part of their corn and other grain.

It is occupied chiefly by Arabs, who are very illiterate and savage. They lead a wretched desolate life, wandering about the country, and feeding on the milk of their flocks, with a little barley meal and some dates. The men go almost naked, having only a piece of linen fastened round the waist, and a kind of bonnet on their heads made of black woollen cloth: but the women have a loose garment that reaches from the waist to the knees. The better sort have a kind of gown made of blue callico, with large sleeves, which are brought to them from Negroland. The men are tall and thin,

but the women are in general robust; and both sexes are of a swarthy complexion.

Their tents or huts are low and mean, consisting only of a few sticks covered with some coarse cloth made of camel's hair, and a rough kind of wool, or moss, that grows on the palm trees. They lie on mats made of rushes, but have not any covering. They have neither laws or government, being only subject to the will of their chiefs, who are appointed as superintendants, but pay as little attention to any kind of decorum as the people they are supposed to direct.

They live chiefly by thieving, and plundering such passengers as they happen to meet with in their excursions. When they travel for these purposes, or in pursuit of pasture or water, they ride on camels, which are not only useful on account of their milk, and the great burthens they carry, but also for the immediate relief they yield in case of excessive drought; for such are the amazing deserts of this country, that they frequently travel a fortnight together without meeting with any water; so that when that is exhausted which they take with them on the backs of the camels, they have recourse to the beast itself, whom they kill, and drink the water they find in its stomach; it being the nature of that animal to swallow such a quantity at one time as will serve him for many days. In some places, indeed, there are wells of brackish water, which are lined with camels bones, and covered with their skins to keep out the sand; but there is great danger in going to them; for, by the violence of the wind, the mountains of sand are sometimes raised to such an height, that whole caravans have been buried beneath them.

In one part of these deserts there is a sort of people who are entirely different from the rest, as they are more sociable, and live in settled habitations. These carry on a kind of commerce with strangers, to whom they are very civil, and are, in general, tolerably honest in their dealings. Their religion, as well as that of the wild Arabs, is chiefly Mahometanism.

The respective provinces into which this country is divided are the following.

Zanhaga, extending itself from the river Sue, which parts it from Morocco on the north, to that of Senegal on the south. It is bounded on the east by the territories of Serem, Sunda, and Zuenziga, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. The inhabitants of this province are of various nations, and among them are some tribes of Arabs, who chiefly live by plunder, and carry off great quantities of their neighbours cattle, which they exchange in different parts of the country for dates. There is one district here, called Taguzza, remarkable for producing vast quantities of rock salt, which the inhabitants carry not only to all parts of this desert, but also to Negroland, as it is found to be of infinite use in scorbutic disorders, to which the people are subject from the natural heat and dryness of the climate.

Travelling here is very fatiguing and dangerous, especially in summer, there not being any water to be seen for 100 miles together; so that if a proper provision is not made, they are subject to perish with thirst. In one part of this province are two tombs, on each of which is an inscription, intimating that the unhappy persons there interred were, the one a wealthy merchant, and the other a poor carrier, who had both died there with excessive thirst: that the former had given the carrier 10,000 ducats for a cruise of water, and died soon after drinking it, while the latter perished for want of it.

The inhabitants of this province live chiefly on dates and the milk of their cattle. Sometimes, indeed, they kill wild goats and other game, but these are so scarce as seldom to be met with, and for that reason are considered as a great rarity.

The whole country is so flat and barren, that, in long journies, travellers have the greatest difficulty in finding their way, there not being a building, tree, or any other mark to direct their course. They generally travel in the night, owing to the violent heat of the sun in the day, and are chiefly guided by the stars. Sometimes

times, indeed, they are directed by the flight of certain birds that go backwards and forwards at particular periods, but the former is what they principally depend on; for by justly observing the regular motions of the stars, they will as readily pursue the right track, as a mariner will by the assistance of the compass.

As when the stars, in their æthereal race,
At length have roll'd around the liquid space,
At certain periods they resume their place;
From the same point of heav'n their course advance,
And move in measures of their former dance.

Though their system of astronomy is replete with absurdity, in their own way they will describe the number, situation, and division of the stars, with amazing exactness, as is fully evinced by the benefits they receive from them in travelling through these desarts.

In these expeditions they generally go with large caravans. Their goods and necessaries are carried on camels, and they are otherwise so well provided, that they seldom meet with any accident on the road.

The province of Zuenziga is rather more barren than the former, and both men and beasts frequently perish on their journies for want of water.

The Arabs of this province are justly hated by the Negroes, whom, when opportunity offers, they will make prisoners, and send to Fez as slaves; in return for which, when they get any of the Arabs into their hands, they murder them with the greatest cruelty.

The province of Targa is not so dry or barren as either of the former, nor is it either so sultry or unwholesome. It has many good springs of water, and the land produces several sorts of herbs, and many useful vegetables. In some parts are found great quantities of manna, which the inhabitants gather in calabashes, and export it for sale. The Negroes dissolve it in the water in which they boil their meat, which they drink, and attribute to this the health they enjoy. The Arabs and Moors, who are very numerous in this province, carry on a great trade by catching of Negroes, and sending them as slaves to Morocco.

Adjoining to this province, on the south, is the desert called Zanzara, which is tolerable fertile, producing corn, rice, Turkey wheat, and some cotton. The inhabitants are tall and well shaped; but they are quite black, and their faces large, flat, and very disagreeable. This desert was subdued by one of the kings of Tombuto, who caused the prince of it to be poisoned, and put to death a great number of his subjects.

Lempta is more barren than any other part through the whole desert of Zahara. It is exceeding dangerous for travellers, not only on account of the excessive heat, and scarcity of water, but also from the natural ferocity of the inhabitants.

Agades produces tolerable grass, and in some parts of it are found great quantities of manna. The inhabitants feed large herds of cattle, and live chiefly in the open country, in poor wretched huts, made of reeds, and covered with mats.

The country of Berdoa in general is very dry and barren, not producing any commodity that merits the least notice. The inhabitants are very illiterate and savage, and live chiefly by plundering merchants and travellers.

The province of Bornou is more fertile than all the other parts of this extensive desert, and the inhabitants of it are much more sociable. We shall, therefore, be a little particular in noticing their methods of living, manners, customs, ceremonies, &c.

These people live in tents or cabins, which are placed together in the form of a circle, and in the center is an area, in which they keep their cattle. As they frequently remove from one place to another, they are consequently under disagreeable apprehensions from robbers and wild beasts; and in order to guard against any surprise from either, they always keep centinels without the tents, who, if any danger appears, give an immediate alarm, which is circulated throughout the encampment, and every person able to bear arms defends

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his own premises. They have but little difficulty in removing from one place to another, for each tent is so lightly constructed, and their furniture so small, that the whole is conveyed to a considerable distance on the back of a camel.

They sit cross-legged at their meals, on a mat made of Morocco leather or palm leaves, and the dishes that contain their food are made of copper or ivory. They eat but two meals a day, one a little after sun rise, and the other a little before sun-set; and the women are not permitted to eat with them. They wash after their meals, and then regale themselves by drinking coffee, and smoking tobacco.

To their temperate method of living may be ascribed the natural strength of their constitution; for they are seldom ill, and generally live to a very advanced age. The only diseases they are subject to are the dysentery and pleurisy; but these are easily cured by simples, which they administer both internally and externally.

They circumcise their male children at the age of 14, after which they may marry as soon as they can purchase a wife. Those who have many daughters consider them as being a capital estate; for when any suitor offers himself, he must make considerable presents to the parents, as on that only depends his success. They form a judgment of the suitor's affections by his liberality; and however well the parties may like each other, the parents will not deliver up the girl till they are satisfied with the presents made by the intended husband. If he does not approve of his wife after she is delivered to him by her parents, he may return her back; but in that case he is obliged to forfeit the presents made previous to their coming together.

The province of Gaoga, the last we have to mention in the desert of Zahara, is reckoned to be upwards of 500 miles in length from north to south, and 300 in breadth from east to west, extending itself from the 19th to the 28th degree of east longitude, and from the 12th to the 22d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the east by Nubia, on the west by Bornou, on the north by part of the same province, and on the south by the kingdom of Gorham, from which it is separated by the river Senegal.

The country is in general exceeding mountainous, and the inhabitants little better than mere savages. They go almost naked. Their chief subsistence arises from their cattle, but they sometimes get considerable possessions by the plundering of travellers. They live in small wretched huts, made on so light a construction, that they frequently take fire, and the whole village being formed of them is totally consumed. They have no sense of religion, nor indeed of any thing else that belongs to rational beings.

The chief and only city in this province is Gaoga, situated on the north side of the lake of the same name; but it is so wretched a place, and the inhabitants so rude and illiterate, that it does not merit the least attention.

SECTION III.

T O M B U T O.

THIS country, so called from Tombuto the capital, is situated in 2 deg. 25 min. east long. and 14 deg. 32 min. north lat. It is very fertile, being well watered by the river Senegal, which runs through it; and when that river overflows, the water is conveyed by sluices to Tombuto. Besides this, there are many springs, the waters of which are exceeding good. The chief produce is corn and cattle, great quantities of which they export to the neighbouring kingdoms, particularly to Fez and Morocco.

The inhabitants in general are of a mild and cheerful disposition, and spend great part of their time in singing and dancing. Among them are many artificers and manufacturers, particularly weavers of cotton cloth; and some of them are said to be exceeding wealthy.

The houses of the poorer sort are made of stakes and hurdles plaistered over with clay, and in their shape resemble that of a bell; but those of the better sort are built with stone, and are handsome and lofty. There are also several elegant structures, particularly a stately mosque, surrounded with a stone wall. The king's palace is also a spacious building, and the architecture exceeding beautiful. It is furnished in the most elegant manner, the principal articles in it being of solid gold; and the king keeps his court with the greatest splendor. He has a numerous retinue, and is shewn every token of homage. In war he rides on a camel, but all his soldiers ride on horses. His attendants consist of 3000 horsemen, and a prodigious number of foot, who, besides other arms, have poisoned arrows. They have frequent skirmishes with those who refuse to pay tribute. When a conquest is obtained, the captives are sold to the merchants of Tombuto. Their horses are chiefly brought from Barbary; for those bred in the country are so few, and at the same time so small, that they are only used on very trifling occasions. With these beasts, however, the king is always well provided; for when a merchant comes there with horses, he orders the best of them to be picked out, and does not hesitate to pay whatever price the merchants demand.

No Jews are admitted into the city; and if a merchant is known to traffic with them, the king immediately orders the goods to be confiscated.

Instead of coin they use bars of gold, six of which weigh an ounce. They have also shells brought from Persia, 400 of which are estimated at the value of a ducat.

The Barbary merchants bring here great quantities of European cloth, as do also the merchants of Tripoli; besides which, the latter also bring glass beads, coral, paper, copper basons, and other like wares. The articles exported from hence are dates, fenna, ostrich feathers, slaves, and gold.

To the south of Tombuto is a large town called Cobra, pleasantly situated on the banks of the river Senegal. The buildings are much the same as those at the capital, and the inhabitants are no less mild and sociable, tho' not quite so temperate in their living. They are subject to many diseases that carry off great numbers, which are supposed to originate from their food, that is composed of flesh, fish, milk, butter, oil, and wine; besides which they addict themselves to spirituous liquors, and sometimes drink them to great excess. In this town is a judge, appointed by the king of Tombuto, to decide all controversies; but the people have the liberty of appealing from his decision to the sovereign.

C H A P XV.

A B Y S S I N I A.

SECTION I.

Name. Extent. Boundaries. Climate. Mountains. Rivers. Lakes. Soil. Productions, Vegetable and Animal.

ABYSSINIA has been called by different names, and particularly by that of Habessinia, from the Arabic word Habash, which signifies a mixture, the country being peopled by various nations; but the inhabitants call it Itjopia, or Ethiopia. The latter, however, is rather an epithet than a proper name, and was given by the Greeks to all countries inhabited by blacks. The diversity of names hath heretofore made great confusion, till at length that of Abyssinia prevailed, and by which it has been universally known for ages past.

This country in extent is 900 miles in length, and 800 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Nubia, on the south by Alaba, on the east by the coast of Abex on the Red Sea, and on the west by the river Maley.

It may reasonably be supposed, from the situation of this country, that the climate in general is exceeding sultry; but the extreme heat is only felt in the vallies or low lands; for the hills, or ridges of mountains, most of which are of a prodigious height, enjoy an agreeable coolness; insomuch that there are some parts where the summers are less sultry than in Portugal, and others where the inhabitants are more afraid of cold than heat. This difference of climate is, however, frequently productive of violent storms of thunder and lightning, which are sometimes so terrible as to be very destructive both to man and beast. These storms are also generally attended with excessive rains, which are frequently so violent that their streams carry away with them trees, houses, and even hills, whilst all the rivers overflow, and lay the country under water; and after the water retires, the lanes and roads are so covered with a thick slimy mud, that they become for some time entirely impassable. But the greatest inconvenience that attends these rains is, that they infect the air with a dangerous malignancy; for falling on a ground that hath lain dry and almost parched up for a considerable time, they naturally raise such vast quantities of unwholesome vapours, as seldom fail producing some violent distem-

pers, from which even those who keep themselves altogether at home are seldom exempted.

The seasons here are, properly speaking, three, viz. the spring, which begins at the latter end of September; the summer, which commences on the 25th of December; and the winter, which begins on the 25th of June. The summer they divide into two parts, of three months each; the first of which they call Tzadai, and is the most sultry and disagreeable; and the other they call Hagai, which is much more moderate and pleasant.

The winds here differ as much as the climate: some, especially on the high lands and lofty mountains, are very refreshing and pleasant; whilst others on the low lands, where the air is less agitated, are hot, and very unhealthy. They are subject to one in particular which is rather a hurricane, and is called in their language Sengo, or Serpent. This is sometimes so violent that it overturns houses, tears up trees by the roots, and is frequently very prejudicial to the shipping. Notwithstanding these inconveniences this wind has some good tendency, as it clears the air of the lower grounds, which would otherwise stagnate, and prove infectious both to man and beast.

The whole country is intersected with prodigious high mountains, between which are such dreadful precipices as must naturally strike terror in the beholder. Some of them have very large plains on the top, covered with trees and other verdure, and afford springs of excellent water; and some of them are so well cultivated as to produce most of the principal necessities of life. These mountains are exceeding numerous, and, in general, so very lofty, that we may justly say with the poet,

Behold the mountains, less'ning as they rise,
Lose the low vale, and steal into the skies.

What is very remarkable, these stupendous hills, which the natives call Dambas, appear at some distance in a delightful variety of shapes. Some of them resemble pyramids, and others towers of various shapes. Some are of an exact square; others as perfectly round as if they had been turned or wrought with the chisel. Some again so deceive the eye, that when you arrive at what you supposed to be the top, you discover it to be only the foot of another, equally high and difficult.

That

That the reader may form a proper idea of one of these strange natural productions, and the great danger and difficulty there is in ascending them, we shall present an account of that called Guza, situated in the kingdom of Tigra, which travellers, who come from the Red Sea, are obliged to cross in going to Dambea. This remarkable mountain is thus described by two late very ingenious travellers. "When you have gained the top (say they) it presents you a handsome, spacious plain, in the midst of which stands another mountain of equal height, which you must also go over, after you have sufficiently refreshed yourself on the fertile and delightful top of the Guza. The ascent takes up about half a day's journey, and goes winding all the way up. The paths are very narrow, and cut into the side of the solid rock; and all the way you go presents you with a most deep and dreadful precipice, the bottom of which cannot be reached by the naked eye, but only offers a gulph, which at once makes the head quite giddy, and fills the heart with a continual dread. Should any of the caravans that keep going up and down these steep and narrow roads chance to meet another in its way, both men and beasts are in the greatest danger of being thrown down the precipice, and broken into a thousand pieces before they reach the bottom, unless they take the utmost care in passing by one another. The mules are by far the best for those that ride, because they are the surest footed: but they have an ill faculty with them, that they will always go close to the edge of the precipice, and cannot, without great risk, be turned to the other side of the road, or be kept to it when they are there. What adds still more to the horror of the journey, whether it be up or down the steep declivity, is, that at the bottom of the valley below, there commonly runs a swift torrent of water, with a most hideous roar, which being echoed by the adjacent rocks, and often heightened by loud winds, as well as by the continual trampling of the men and beasts upon the rock, increases the horrid din to such a degree, that one cannot possibly hear one's self, much less one another, speak, though ever so loud, or ever so near. But the wished-for summit once attained (which is reckoned above 300 fathoms perpendicular above the plain top of Guza, and the most difficult part of all the way, being only provided by nature with a sort of steps like winding stairs, two or three cubits high, and uncouth, on both sides of the rock) one is made amply amends by the beautiful prospect it at once presents to the view, which is not that of rugged and intersected peaks above, and deep gaping vallies beneath, as might be expected, but of a small delightful plain, about two miles in compass, and a musket-shot in breadth, and terminated at one end by a new, flat, and upright rock, like the back of a chair, of which this little plain is the seat: so that take the whole mountain together, that of Guza seems to be a kind of pedestal to this; and the latter, which the natives call Lamalmon, represents, in some measure, a chair without arms, the back of which is the upright rock at the end of the plain, which is as perpendicular as if it had been hewn out with a chissel. Along what we may call the seat of this wonderful and super-eminent chair, is pleasantly situated a town of the same name, whose inhabitants make a decent livelihood by helping the caravans to load and unload the beasts of burthen, during a good part of the way of the craggy ascent before-mentioned, in order to help them to leap from one step to another; so that one would be surprised to see with what facility they make the beasts climb and keep their feet, while they themselves convey their burthens from one stair to another through every difficult part of this extensive ascent."

There are other mountains in this country that resemble the above, particularly one situated between the kingdoms of Amhara and Oleca. But the most considerable amongst them all is that called by the natives Thabat Mariam, or more properly Tadbaba Mar-jam, whose summit greatly exceeds all the rest, and is at the same time very spacious. This remarkable mountain,

whose bottom is watered by two large rivers descending from it, has seven handsome churches on its summit, one of which, dedicated to St. John, is very beautiful, having been formerly the burial place of the Abyssinian emperors. Within side are at this time five monuments erected to the memory of these monarchs: they are covered with tapestry, on which are represented the arms of Portugal.

There is a remarkable hollow and high rock situated in the kingdom of Gojam, directly opposite to which, at a small distance, is another much of the same height and bulk, so exactly placed by nature, that it echoes back a word barely whispered in the former with amazing force; and the joint voices of three or four persons speaking together, produce a sound not inferior to that arising from the shouts of a numerous army.

Echo in other words her silence breaks,
Speechless herself, but when another speaks.
She can't begin, but waits for the rebound,
To catch his voice, and to return the sound.
Hence 'tis she prattles in a fainter tone,
With mimic sounds, and speeches not her own.

This country is well watered, having a great number of excellent rivers. The most considerable of these, exclusive of the Nile, which takes its rise here, are the Tacazee, the Marib or Moraba, the Maley, the Howash, the Zebee, and the Bahr-el-Abiad, or White River.

There are also great numbers of smaller rivers, the chief of which fall at length into the Nile, and the rest into the Indian Sea. From these rivers the people cut canals to water their lands, which in some parts are made so rich and fertile, that they yield two or three crops in one year.

Here are also several large lakes, the most considerable of which is that called by the Europeans Dambea, and by the natives Bahr Tzana, or Sea of Tzana, from the chief island in it of that name.

The natives sail on this lake in flat-bottomed boats, which they call tancoas. They are not made of wood, but of a kind of rushes that grow on its banks, each of which is about the thickness of a man's arm, and about two yards in length. These rushes they call Tambua, the like of which grow also on the banks of the Nile, and are used for the same purposes. These last are those which the ancients called Papyrus, and were serviceable to them not only in making their paper, but also in their boats, sails, and other tackle.

The only inconvenience belonging to this lake is, that it breeds great numbers of sea-horses, which not only endanger the navigation, but destroy the fish, and sometimes make considerable ravages on the land. However, the people that live on its banks make it their business to destroy these animals, not only to secure their corn and other grain from being destroyed by them, but also for the sake of their flesh, of which they are very fond. They also cut their skins into long straps, called allengas, which they use instead of whips to scourge their horses.

The soil of this country is various, according as the ground is higher or lower, stoney, sandy, or flat. In general, however, it is tolerably good, and those parts in particular that are well watered produce large crops of wheat, barley, millet, and other grain. But the most remarkable grain here, and what is in some measure natural to the country, is a small one called teff, which in taste and flour greatly resembles rye. It is very thin and slender, and the grain much smaller than those of the mustard. The natives make it into bread, and prefer it to that made with any other grain, for which reason they are more careful in the cultivation of it.

In this country is great variety of fruits, but those most cultivated are the black grape, peaches, pomegranates, almonds, citrons, and oranges. They have also great plenty of roots and herbs, which, notwithstanding the heat of the country, grow naturally. Sugar-canes are likewise very plentiful, and they have prodigious

gious quantities of honey, which is here very excellent, and of many different sorts.

Not only many of the medicinal plants of Europe grow naturally here, but there are some peculiar to the country. Of the most valuable are the amadinagda and the affase. The former of these hath the specific virtue of healing dislocated or broken limbs, and of drawing out splinters of broken bones left in the flesh. The latter is a most singular antidote not only against all poisons, but likewise all venomous creatures, inasmuch that the very touching them with it stupifies and deprives them of all their powers; and what is still more surprising, it is said the very shadow or scent of it so affects the most poisonous serpents, that their limbs are immediately benumbed, their venom is no longer poisonous, and they may be handled without the least danger. This extraordinary plant is of infinite service in these parts, as there are prodigious numbers of serpents, one sort of which is so singularly prejudicial, that even its breath only, at several yards distance, generally proves destructive; they are short, but remarkably thick, especially about the middle; their mouths are very wide, at which they suck in a great quantity of air at once, and then breathe it out with such prodigious force against man or beast who fall in their way, that it generally proves fatal.

The animals of this country are both various and numerous. Those of the tame kind are horses, mules, camels, dromedaries, oxen, cows, sheep and goats. The oxen in particular are of so prodigious a size, that at a distance they have been taken for elephants: and their horns are so large, that the inhabitants make them into pitchers, and other necessary utensils.

The horses here are of various colours, but the black are most esteemed: they are in general fleet and docile, but seldom used except in times of war. The beasts of carriage are mules, camels, and dromedaries, all which they train up to an easy yet quick pace. They use the mules when they travel over the craggy mountains, those beasts being not only very gentle, but also sure footed: and the camels and dromedaries when they travel through hot and sandy deserts.

The natives prefer riding on mules to horses, not only on account of that beast being more gentle and sure-footed, but also out of respect to their own pedigree; for as they boast themselves to be descended from the Jews, whose princes and great ones are recorded to have chiefly ridden upon mules, they esteem it an honour to do the same here, and to have their horses led by the bridle, till some martial engagement obliges them to mount.

The wild animals of this country are lions, tygers, leopards, wolves, foxes, various kinds of apes, and other beasts of prey; all which are very numerous, fierce, and mischievous, but they have not any thing particular in them from those of other hot countries.

Lions here are numerous, and of several sorts and sizes, but the most remarkable are those stiled of the kingly or royal breed. As these do considerable mischief among the larger cattle, the inhabitants are very assiduous in endeavouring to destroy them, and will even encounter them with no other weapons than their lances and daggers. They are in general so large, that some of them killed have measured 14 feet in length from the neck to the tail. One of this prodigious size was some years ago destroyed by a shepherd in the open field with a dart, the circumstances attending which are thus related. This fierce creature was coming down from the mountains all covered with the blood of animals it had torn in pieces, when the shepherd seeing him at a great distance making towards him, retreated to a large hole that had been made in the ground, and upon his approaching within reach of his weapon, he threw it at him with such force, that it pierced him through the shoulder: the monster, after many dreadful roars and leaps, fell luckily into the pit, where he was dispatched by the victorious countryman, though not without receiving many wounds, as well as being in the most imminent danger of his life.

Among the wild animals here may be remarked the elephants, as none of them were ever known to be brought to that docility common to those in other countries. They generally go in large droves, and frequently make havock among the corn and other grain. They also make great destruction among the forests, by rooting up large trees, and breaking down small ones to feed on their leaves.

Here are numbers of rhinoceroses, which are great enemies to the elephants: the zebra, or wild ass, is likewise a native of this empire. It is said that 2000 sequins was given for one of these animals by an Indian Moor, in order to make a present to the Great Mogul.

Poultry abound here, particularly geese, ducks, turkies and hens: they have also abundance of wild fowl and game, with a variety of uncommon birds peculiar to this country. Among these we shall select the following.

The Pipi, so called from the sound of its voice resembling those two syllables. This bird hath a remarkable instinct in directing huntsmen to their game, and will not leave them till they have arrived at the spot where it lies. It is a small bird, but very beautiful, its feathers being variegated with various colours.

The Abagun, or Stately Abbot, is remarkable for its beauty, as also for a kind of horn that grows on its head instead of a crest: this horn is short and round, and is divided at the upper end in the shape of a mitre.

The Seitan, Favez, or Devil's Horse, resembles a man armed with feathers, and commonly walks with a majestic gravity, or runs with surprising swiftness; but when too closely pursued it expands its wings and flies away. It is about as high as a stork, but its shape is much more genteel and beautiful.

The Cardinal is a very handsome bird, all its feathers being of a beautiful crimson, except those on its breast, which appear of the colour, and have the smooth gloss of the finest black velvet.

Here are prodigious numbers of insects and other vermin. But the most destructive are the locusts, which sometimes fly in such swarms that they destroy all before them, and leave whole kingdoms and provinces desolate.

In the mountainous parts of this country there are several mines of salt; as also others that produce gold, silver, lead and iron. The natives, however, do not work either the gold or silver mine, on account of the fear they are in of tempting their neighbours to seize on them, should they be once apprised of their having such valuable possessions: so that though this country might produce plenty of these metals, yet they prudently chuse to have so tempting a treasure concealed from strangers, and content themselves chiefly with what is brought to them from Cassiria, Nigritia, and other parts, rather than to hazard the enslaving their country, by acknowledging they have any of their own. What little they otherwise get is brought by the torrents from the mountains, which is often found in grains as large as peas, and of a very fine and pure nature.

SECTION II.

Persons, Dress, Habitations, Diet, Manners, Customs, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, Commerce, Religion, &c. of the Inhabitants of Abyssinia.

THE inhabitants of this country may be classed in the following order:

1. Christians of the Abyssinian church, and those whom the Roman missionaries brought over to their communion.
2. Jews settled here from time immemorial.
3. Mahometans dispersed throughout the empire, and forming one third of the inhabitants.
4. Gentiles, inhabiting several parts, and chiefly descendants of the Gallas.

In general the Abyssinians are well made, and of a lively tractable disposition: some of them are black, but the principal part are of a brown, or olive complexion: they are very tall, and their features well proportioned: their eyes are large, and of a sparkling black, their noses rather high than flat, and their teeth white and uniform.

They are sober, temperate, and less addicted to vices than the inhabitants of Europe. They seldom quarrel with each other; but when such circumstances happen, they first proceed to blows, and as soon as the heat is allayed, either by those means or the intervention of cooler reason, they immediately submit to an arbitration, or lay the whole cause of their quarrel before the ruler of the place, and he who is declared to have been in the wrong faithfully stands by the judgment of the ruler, without grudge, murmur or appeal.

The common people dress in a kind of scarf, which hangs loose from the shoulders to the waist, from whence they have a pair of cotton drawers that reach to the ankles. The better sort wear a long vest made either of silk or cotton, and tied about the waist with a rich girdle. The ladies dress in the best silks and brocades, and ornament their heads various ways: their necks are decorated with chains, jewels, and other embellishments, and in their ears they wear the richest pendants. Both sexes take particular pains with their hair, which is the only ornament they have to their heads, none but the emperors being permitted to wear either cap or any other covering.

Exclusive of a few royal palaces and ancient churches there are few public structures or private buildings, the inhabitants mostly living in tents or camps, and removing from one place to another as best suits their convenience. The houses, or rather huts, that form their camps are wretched buildings, being made only of lath and clay, and covered with straw. Their furniture is equally mean with their houses, consisting only of a large table to sit round at their meals, and a few trifling utensils. The more wealthy lie upon couches, and cover themselves with their upper garments, but the poorer sort lie on mats on the ground, and wrap themselves up in the skins of some beast.

They are not only very temperate in their eating, but far from being nice in the choice of their food, for none can be well coarser, or more disgusting than theirs even among the better sort. It generally consists of a piece of flesh, which is sometimes parboiled, but for the most part quite raw: this is served up on apas, or cakes of bread, ground and made by the women, of wheat, pease, millet, teff, and other sorts of grain, according to their circumstances, so that this apas serves them not only instead of a dish or plate, but likewise instead of a napkin or table-cloth, neither of which they ever use at their tables. When they boil mutton or chicken to make broth, they serve it up in black earthen porringers, covered with what they call ascambias, which are like caps made of fine straw. Those of the greatest quality have no better than these at their tables, and the older they are the more they value them. The sauces they use to their meat are no less disagreeable than the flesh itself, being chiefly butter turned into oil, with which are mixed some ingredients the smell and taste of which are so disgusting, that a stranger could not eat with them, not even a Spaniard or a Portuguese.

The highest dainty is a piece of raw beef brought in reeking warm from the beast; and if they invite company to eat with them, the whole quarter is served up at once, with plenty of salt and pepper. The gall serves instead of oil or vinegar. Some add an ingredient called malta, which is made of what they draw out of the paunch of the ox or cow. This they stew some time on the fire, with pepper, salt and sliced onion before they bring it to table, which, when covered with such a large piece of warm raw beef, is esteemed by them a most delicious repast. This dish, however, can only be purchased by the rich, on account of the pep-

per, which in this country is not only exceeding scarce, but also very dear.

Their manner of eating their victuals is as filthy as their choice: it is esteemed among them a piece of high breeding to gobble large pieces, and to make as much noise as they can in chewing their meat; it being a common saying among them, "That none but beggarly wretches chew their meat only on one side; and none but thieves and robbers eat without making a noise."

They have, however, one cleanly custom at their meals, which is always to wash their hands before they sit down, because they take up their victuals with their fingers; and those of high rank are still more nice in this particular, having their meat cut into pieces, and conveyed to their mouths by their most favourite attendants.

They never drink till they have finished their meals, when they give a loose to dissipation, and sometimes, especially at feasts, drink to the greatest excess. Their general liquor is mead, the manner of making which is thus: they take five or six quarts of water, and one of honey; these they mix together in a jar, and throw into it a handful of parched barley meal, to make it ferment: after this they put into it some chips of a wood called sardo, which in two or three days takes off the cloying taste of the honey, and makes it very wholesome and palatable. They have also a kind of beer made of barley meal, with which, instead of hops, they mix some intoxicating drugs.

Polygamy is allowed by the laws, but the canons of the church forbid it; so that those who indulge themselves in it are only punished by excommunication. All their marriages must be celebrated before a priest, his benediction being esteemed essentially necessary. The previous ceremonies are very trifling, the parties only engaging to cohabit and join their stocks together, as long as they like each other; but, if any differences afterwards arise, they shall be at liberty to part. This, added to the consent of the parents, and the interchange of a few presents, concludes the contract, and the parties proceed to the door of the church, where they are met by the priest, who performs the ceremony, and bestows on them his blessing.

The paramour of an adulteress, if convicted, is only punished by fine; and if he is unable to pay it, he becomes a slave to the husband till he can either obtain the money, or has compensated for it by servitude.

Few ceremonies are observed in the interment of their dead. As soon as the person has expired he is immediately washed, sprinkled with holy water, then wrapped up in a sheet, and laid on a bier. This done, the relations order a grave to be made, into which the body is hastily thrown, when the priest reads the service, and the grave is immediately filled up. The relations bewail their loss by the most hideous lamentations, laying themselves flat on the ground, and beating themselves with great violence against it. The funerals of the emperors and grandees are performed with great pomp and magnificence, accompanied with all the insignia of their dignity, and with the most solemn and doleful music, which is in a manner drowned by the loud cries and lamentations of the retinue. But they use neither torches or any other lights, either in the procession, or in the church.

There are but few artists among them, as well as few trades, which are generally conveyed from father to son.

Besides silks, brocades, &c. the Turks bring the Abyssinians several sorts of spices, and amongst them pepper. The last article is the most coveted by them, for which reason the Turks take the advantage, by fixing so high a price on it, that it can be only purchased by them that are very rich. In exchange for these articles the Turks receive skins, furs, leather, honey, wax, and ivory.

The Jews that still remain here speak a kind of Hebrew, but corrupt. The Moors use their own, which is Arabic, but short of the purity of their ancient tongue.

Every province, and almost district, has its own dialect. That which is used at court, and among the polite, is the same as spoken in the kingdom of Amhara, and more or less corruptly in other provinces. That, however, spoken in the kingdom of Tigra, comes nearest to the old Ethiopic. This last almost retains its pristine dignity, and is still in use, not only in all their religious and learned books, in the emperor's letters patent, and all their records, but in their liturgies and religious worship.

Most of their churches appear to have been formerly large and elegant structures, but they are now so decayed, that it is impossible to form a proper idea of their original magnificence. The most distinguished, and which claim the attention of all the curious, are the following ones, viz. St. Emanuel, St. Saviour, St. Mary, the Holy Cross, St. George, Golgotha, Bethlehem, the Martyrs, Marcoteos, and Lalibela. However incredible it may appear, yet certain it is, that these ten churches were all cut out of a solid rock, by dint of the hammer and chisel. The last of them bears the name of their founder, who, being desirous of having them executed, sent for a number of workmen from Egypt, and so expeditiously was the undertaking carried on, that it is said the whole were completed in twenty-four years. A short time, considering the number of them, and the stately manner in which they are constructed, being proportionable in all their parts, as gates, windows, pillars, arches, chancels, &c.

Besides the churches, there are many monasteries in Abyssinia, most of which contain two chapels, one for the men, and the other for the women; but how they came to be introduced, and of what order the first founders of them were, is not known.

SECTION III.

Dignity and Power of the Emperor.

ABYSSINIA has ever been subject to despotism under emperors whose will knew no controul. Their imperious monarch prides himself on a supposition preserved by his ancestors, of being descended, by lineal succession, from Merrilebeck, or David, the son of the great Solomon, king of Israel, by the queen of Sheba. In consequence of this he assumes several vain and pompous titles, such as the Offspring of Judah, the Son of David, of Solomon, of the Pillar of Sion, the Seed of Jacob, of the line of Mary, of Nahu after the flesh; of St. Peter and St. Paul after the spirit, &c. &c. He likewise bears in his arms the lion of the tribe of Judah holding a cross, with this inscription in Ethiopic, *The lion of the tribe of Judah is conqueror.*

None of his subjects dare to approach him without the deepest marks of submission, and such as are little inferior to those shewn to Indian monarchs. They also pay adoration to him even in his absence, for they never hear his name mentioned without bowing their bodies very low, and touching the ground with their hands.

Like his subjects, the emperor lives altogether in tents, and removes from place to place. He is always followed by a numerous retinue, and his camp takes up a great track of ground, as his court is very numerous, and attended by a considerable guard.

The emperor, whether in time of peace or war, is always attended by his azaques and chief ministers. He wears a kind of cap or hat, made after the Indian manner, on the top of which is a crown formed of gold and silver, and embellished with pearls. In times of war great order is observed in marching: the army is ordered to keep close, the van-guard and rear drawing up close to the main body; the wings spread themselves out, and the emperor keeps in the center with his guards, great officers, ladies, &c. At other times little order is observed, excepting that there is always a number of warlike instruments, and a proper guard marching before and after the emperor.

The succession to the crown of Abyssinia is hereditary, but it is not absolutely tied to the primogeniture, for the emperor, if he pleases, may set aside his eldest son, or any other, and leave it to such one as he thinks most deserving of it.

This privilege, or rather prerogative, gave rise to a custom that long prevailed in this country, of confining the princes of the blood to the fortrefs or rock called Amba Geuxen, where they were totally recluse under the strictest guard, nor permitted to receive letter or message without the previous examination of the jailors, who kept them under the most rigid discipline. To restrain ambitious ideas, they compelled them to dress in the garb of the lowest order of the people.

The following narrative will elucidate this matter. One of these rigid jailors observing that a certain young prince had violated the injunction concerning dress, by appearing in attire rather gay, tore it off his back, with the severest menaces if he should transgress again. On the accession of this prince to the imperial throne, he sent for the guard, who, under the deepest apprehensions, prostrated himself, and entreated lenity. Contrary to expectation, the prince applauded him for performing his duty to his father, and, in testimony of his approbation, and reliance on his allegiance and fidelity to him, dismissed him with a sumptuous present. Such behaviour naturally stimulated future jailors to the punctual discharge of their trust.

This custom took its rise from the following circumstance. A certain emperor having bequeathed his dominions among nine sons, who were to reign each year alternately, according to seniority, the youngest being of an ambitious temper, and averse to the mortification of waiting for his turn for swaying the imperial sceptre so long, formed a design of abolishing the annual reigns, and engrossing the dignity to himself. By communicating the project to a friend, he wholly defeated it; for the confident having disclosed the secret to the reigning brother, he adopted that very plan, consigning not only the projector, but his brothers in general, to the care of a guard and jailor. This gave rise to that unnatural custom which was afterwards abrogated from the following cause.

A counsellor of one of the emperors, who had come out of confinement, being present when his son was standing by his side, took occasion to observe that the prince was much advanced in stature. The prince, about nine years old, fixing his eyes upon his father, said, in a pathetic tone, "What! am I then grown up for Amba-Geuxen?" The father, struck with this keen interrogative from a boy so young, determined to abolish that inhuman custom, and not only swore himself, but obliged his officers of state to do the same, that no son of his, nor any other emperor, should thenceforth be ever confined to that place, which oath has been most faithfully observed from that time to the present.

The Abyssinian monarchs indulge themselves in having a plurality of wives, the generality of whom are the daughters of the most distinguished families in the empire. The ceremonies previous to the nuptials, as also the celebration of them, are as follow. As soon as the emperor has intimated his desire of having the daughter of such a one in marriage, she is immediately removed from her parents to an apartment in the house of one of his most distinguished courtiers, where she continues some time, the emperor visiting her occasionally, to form a judgement of her mental as well as her personal accomplishments. If he is satisfied in these particulars, a day is appointed for the celebration of the marriage, when he takes her with him to church, from whence, after assisting in the divine service, he leads her to the imperial pavilion, where the marriage ceremony is performed by the abuna or chief priest, in the presence of the whole court. The emperor, as at other times, dines by himself in his own apartment, and she in hers; but the guests are sumptuously entertained at tables provided for them in tents, and the remainder of the day is spent in festivity and mirth.

The

The bride does not receive the title of empress till some time after marriage, according to the pleasure of the emperor: neither is she permitted to dwell with him in the royal pavilion, but has one assigned her near at hand, from whence she comes to the emperor at such times as he thinks proper to enjoy her company. On the day she is to be installed Itique, or empress, she appears in his tent seated on a couch near the imperial throne, on which the emperor sits likewise, but higher by one step. They are both dressed in the richest apparel, as are also the nobles and officers of the court, who assist at the ceremony. On a signal made, one of his dignified chaplains goes out of the tent, and, standing on a chair, proclaims her empress in these words, *Inagasma danguecera shem*, that is, *We have ordained our slave to reign*; or, *The king hath created his servant queen*. This is immediately answered by the loudest acclamations of the people: after which she receives her dignified title of Itique, or empress, and this she retains during the remainder of her life. The empresses never receive the ceremony of coronation unless it happens that the emperor dies without issue, and in that case it falls on them, when they receive not only that honour, but are solely invested with the imperial dignity.

A celebrated writer says, "As harsh as the word *slave* may sound in our ears, it is in such common use amongst them, that even the emperor's own kindred and brethren have it given to them; so that when he raises any of them to any dignity, such as that of viceroy, which is the highest under him, their commission always runs, *We have constituted our slave viceroy or governor, &c.* without giving them the title of brother or kinsman: and well may he stile them slaves, seeing they are all such to him, from the highest to the lowest; and their lands, lives, &c. are wholly at his disposal."

The same writer adds, "But as little undervaluing as they think the title of slave is among them, it was not so accounted by the Portuguese when they were here; one of whom having obtained some great post from the emperor, and, as a subject of the king of Portugal, who calls them all his children, disdaining to be stiled a slave to that of Ethiopia, offered a large sum of money to the herald, or crier, who was to proclaim his promotion, to leave out that odious title, and call him only by his name; but that was more than the officer dared to do."

The emperor eats in the presence of none but the pages that attend him, who cut his victuals into bits, and convey them to his mouth; for he considers himself of too much importance to be at the trouble of feeding himself: even the empress is denied that privilege; and when he gives audience to foreign ambassadors, he is concealed behind a curtain, so that they may hear, but cannot see him.

The generalissimo of all his forces is called *Rash*, and has under him two officers, one of whom is stiled *Bellatinoche Goyta*, that is, lord of the servants, and is a kind of high steward. His power extends not only over all the viceroys, governors, and generals of the army, but also over the *azagues* and *umbares*, who are the civil judges of the empire. The other officer is stiled *Tahah*, that is, lord of the lesser servants: he is only a kind of under steward to the king's household, which is commonly composed of men of lesser rank.

The viceroys and governors of the kingdoms and provinces are under the *Bellatinoche*, as are also the military commanders, and civil magistrates or judges. All these hold their several courts of judicature, in which causes, whether of a civil or criminal nature, are brought and decided.

They have three sorts of punishment for capital crimes. The first is burying the criminal alive, which they do by digging a large hole, putting him into it upright, and then filling it with earth up to his mouth; after which they cover the head with thorns and briars, and over the whole lay a heavy stone. The second is by beating the criminal to death with thick clubs: And

the last and most common, by piercing him through the body with their assagayes or lances.

If a man is accused of murder, and it cannot be sufficiently proved against him, all the inhabitants of the place are severely fined, or put to some corporal punishment; so that a murderer here seldom escapes.

The remainder of the empire (for great part of it has been dismembered, especially towards the south, where the *Gallas*, who lie between it and the line, have laid waste a number of kingdoms and provinces) is guarded by a standing army, computed to amount to about 45,000 men.

They are but little acquainted with fire-arms, and as indifferently furnished with powder and ball. Their spears are of two sorts, the one like our half or short pikes, the other like a halbert or partisan. The staves of the former are very thin, and the iron narrow, like our pike: the iron of the other is broad and thin. The first is to be thrown by dint of strength, and the last to be used in close fight with one hand, whilst the other holds the buckler, which is usually made of the hide of some beast.

The foot soldiers have likewise two of these spears, one of which they dart with such strength and fury, that they will often pierce a coat of mail or buckler; and the other they keep to continue the fight, as some do the sword and buckler.

Swords are worn by superiors, but seldom used in battle. They likewise wear a kind of dagger under their girdle, with the hilt towards the right, and the point towards the left hand. Some also carry a large club of hard wood with a dagger in it: this weapon they call *balota*, and commonly use it when they come to close engagement with the enemy, and sometimes throw it at them with all their strength.

The cavalry are said to be good horsemen, and mount and sit their horses well; but in other respects they are very indifferently disciplined.

Their martial music consists of kettle-drums, which are exceeding large, trumpets, hautboys, flutes, and other instruments.

The emperor's revenues chiefly arise from four branches; the first of which is the tribute paid him by the governors of such provinces and kingdoms as contain gold mines, particularly those of *Narea* and *Gojam*, from which he receives a certain weight yearly of that metal. The second arises from the sale of all the great places in the empire. The third consists in a tenth levied every third year upon all the cattle in the empire. By this last, which it appears was unknown till about the middle of the last century, every man that has cows is obliged to pay him one out of ten every third year; and the country breeding vast quantities of them, makes it, perhaps, by far the most considerable branch of the three. It is called the burning or branding tax, because the emperor's officers brand those with a particular mark which they set aside for his use. The fourth and last arises from a duty laid on every loom of cotton cloth. If it belongs to a Christian, he pays one piece of cloth; if to a Mahometan, a piece of eight per annum.

SECTION IV.

Various Provinces of the Abyssinian Empire.

TIGRA is the principal province of the Abyssinian empire. Its chief city, *Axum*, was once not only the residence of the emperors, but famous for stately buildings, as palaces, churches, obelisks, &c. of which there still remain some ruins. Though abandoned by the monarchs, and reduced to a mean village, it is said to be the spot whither the emperors now repair to be crowned. There are two or three other small towns in this province. They contain the remains of churches and monasteries, and may be said to exist merely in the name.

Some parts of the kingdom of *Bagameder* are mountains and barren, whilst others are fertile and well watered.

watered. The mountains are inhabited by a wild wandering race, whose chief employment is breeding of cattle. Bagameder, the capital, deserves mention only for its pleasant situation, and decent buildings. The town called Alata is remarkable for having in its neighbourhood a bridge over the Nile.

The province of Amara, or Amhara, though very small, is rendered considerable by being the residence of the emperor, and a distinct dialect of the inhabitants, adopted by the court and first class of the people.

Of the provinces of Oleca and Choa we have only to say, that the former contains nothing remarkable, and that the latter derives all its importance from having been once the imperial residence.

In Damota, or Damu, is the highest and coldest mountain in Abyssinia, to which they banish prisoners of state, and other delinquents.

Goyam, or Gojam, is a very mountainous country, and principally inhabited by Jews, who are said to retain their ancient rites and customs. In the town of Nebessa are the ruins of a magnificent church.

Dambea, being one of the flattest provinces of Abyssinia, is subject to overflowings, not only from the lake of the same name, but several rivers that run through it from the higher lands. It is remarkable for a mountain called Dancafer Dancaton, on the top of which is a spacious and fertile plain, where the emperors are said to have formerly resided. In Dambea there are the remains of several monasteries and monuments.

Narea, or Enarea, is in general a fertile province, producing cattle, and the ordinary necessities of life. The inhabitants carry on some trade with the Caffres. Gondar, in point of magnitude, is a considerable town. The inhabitants have no shops, but expose their goods to sale in a large square, on mats prepared for the purpose.

SECTION V.

Brief Historical Account of Abyssinia.

THE historical transactions of this empire are, in general, vague in their detail, and unimportant in their nature. According to ancient records, from which Jesuit missionaries, who resided here, obtained some fragments, the first who ruled the empire of Abyssinia was the queen of Sheba, who went from thence into Judea, in or about the year before Christ 992. She reigned 25 years after her return, and was succeeded by her son Menilehech, who reigned in conjunction with his father 29 years, and 18 more with his son Rehoboam, after which he died.

He was succeeded by his son Sadgur, from whom proceeded, in lineal descent, 24 princes, of either of whom no particulars are recorded, except that in the eighth year of the last, called Phecen, our Saviour was born, A. M. 4004.

From this period, to the year 327, were 13 emperors, of whom nothing is recorded. After this circumstance the empire was held jointly by three brothers, called Atza, Atzfed, and Amay. These, it is said, in order to prevent discord, projected a very strange

expedient, which was to divide the day into three parts and to hold the reins of government alternately, each his third part, or eight hours.

These monarchs were succeeded by several others, of whom there is only an account of the three last, which is, that, during their reigns, great numbers of monks and anchorites came hither from Egypt, with a view of propagating Christianity and a monastic life.

In process of time, about the year after Christ 521, when Justinian was emperor of Rome, and Cabel of Abyssinia, new tribes of monks came and settled in the province of Tigra. The throne of Abyssinia continued in the same line of succession till about the year 960, when it passed into the Zagean family; and an usurpation, commenced by an impious woman, named Tredda Cabex, continued for 340 years.

The only prince worthy of mention in the Zagean family was Lalibela, who eternized his name by many glorious actions, and particularly in causing ten churches to be hewn out of a rock.

About the year 1300 the Zagean family was driven from the throne, and it reverted to the descendants of Solomon, in the person of Icon Amlac, of whose successors nothing is recorded till the time of Zaara Jacob, who began his reign in 1437, and died in 1465, greatly esteemed, as a man of learning, penetration, and probity.

During the reign of Alexander, which was from 1475 to 1491, Peter Covillan arrived in the empire of Abyssinia, and was the first Portuguese that ever penetrated so far into the inland parts of the country.

The next emperor in whose reign any thing remarkable occurred was Etana-Denghel, or Lebna-Denghel, but more generally known by the names of Onag-Segued. He began his reign in 1507, and closed it in the year 1540. The first twenty years were happy and prosperous, but the last 13 proved distracted and unfortunate, through the depredations made on his dominions by the Moors, which occasioning him to have recourse to the Portuguese for assistance, raised jealousies in the minds of his subjects, and excited perpetual commotions in the empire, till he yielded up his crown and life in the 42d year of his age.

Succeeding princes, for a long series of years, were harrassed by the Gallas and Mahometan Moors, or the revolts of their own subjects; though they generally derived aid and assistance from the Portuguese. Some were slain contending for the empire, some were murdered by their own soldiers, and others were dethroned through various revolutions, till the year 1718, when the Abyssinians raised a prince named David to the throne, whose successors have regularly assumed the imperial dignity, and quietly enjoyed their honours from that time to the present.

The Portuguese had made frequent and strenuous efforts, throughout a long course of time, to establish their religion in Abyssinia, till at length the greater part of the people, zealously attached to their ancient religion, sacrificed several Romish priests to their fury, and their patriarch very narrowly escaped out of the country with his life.

C H A P. XVI.

THE GALLAS, A BARBAROUS NATION ON THE CONFINES OF ABYSSINIA.

BORDERING on Abyssinia is a barbarous and warlike nation called the Gallas, concerning whose origin writers in general do not agree; though there are many particulars respecting their disposition, customs, and manners, in which their accounts concur.

The Gallas are divided into tribes or provinces, according to their respective situations, as eastern, southern, and western. They are a robust, hardy, and resolute people, and of a very ferocious disposition. Their natural hardness and ferocity being increased by

an early initiation in the military art, they may be deemed rather cruel than martial. They are taught the use of the sword, and made to believe that conquest entitles them to the possession of whatever they desire, and is the only effectual means of preserving it. In a word, they are trained up to the love of desperate achievements, and to look upon death with contempt.

As, by their maxims, the cutting off their hair constitutes them men, the young males are not permitted to receive that honour till they have deserved it, either by killing an enemy, or some wild beast, such as a lion, tiger, leopard, &c. after which they are allowed to cut their hair, leaving only a single lock on the top. This inspires them with an uncommon ambition to signalize themselves by their bravery, as the most effectual means of acquiring esteem, and obtaining the more honourable seats at their councils, festivals, &c. for the greater number of heroic actions they perform, the more are they respected. For this reason they take care to save all the heads of those enemies they have killed, as trophies of the greatest value; and when any contest or doubt arises about them (which is sometimes the case) as when there is no beard upon them, and may be supposed to have belonged to a female, they have a law which obliges the person to produce a more decisive part along with it, otherwise they are not admitted. To prevent, therefore, all disputes, they are obliged to lay those trophies that are gained in battle before their proper officers, at the head of their tribes, as soon as the engagement is over: there they are publicly viewed and examined, and, if approved, are entered into the common register; after which the owner has liberty to carry them to his own tent, together with his share of the spoil or plunder, which is allotted to him in proportion to the degree in which he has distinguished himself in the engagement. By this method all collusion and deceit is prevented, or else discovered and punished; it being considered as every man's duty to detect all false pretences to merit, as well as that of their commanding officers, who inflict a punishment on the delinquent adequate to the falsities he may have endeavoured to impose.

Those who shew the least signs of cowardice are punished in the most exemplary manner. It is death to give way after an engagement is begun; so that they all fight with the most undaunted courage and resolution, and are so furious in the attack, not giving or taking any quarter, that it is hardly possible to make head against them; and this is the reason why they have obtained so many signal victories over the Abyssinians, though the latter are much superior in number, and better provided both with horses and arms.

In distant engagements they use bows, arrows, and darts, and are very expert in the exercise of those weapons. When they come to close quarters, they have a club, or rather bludgeon, remarkably heavy at one end. They have also shields made of the hides of buffaloes: but those of higher rank instead of a club use a sword.

With respect to government, they have no kings, but are divided into a great variety of tribes, each of which chooses a chief, or general commander, whom they call Luva, and him they obey as a sovereign. These chiefs are chosen every eight years, and if any of them die in the time, others are immediately elected to supply their place. Their authority reaches only to military affairs, that is, to convene the great council at proper seasons to determine on peace and war. When the latter is the result of their meeting, each Luva heads

his own army, and distributes to the respective officers under him their several posts and commands. In like manner, when the war or expedition is over, he assigns to each man his proper honours and rewards, according to his merit; but if any dispute, or matter of complaint, arises, it is adjudged by the national council, who alone have a power to confirm, alter, or abrogate, the sentence or decree of the Luva.

As an instance of the pomp and parade of these ostentatious chiefs, a traveller of character and discernment relates the following particulars. "Being (says he) obliged to pay my respects to the Luva, or chief, in order to discover a new way into Abyssinia, I found him with all his wives and flocks about him; the place where he received me being a hut thatched with straw, but somewhat larger than those of his subjects. He appeared with all the seeming consequence of an eastern monarch, and his attendants paid him the most reverential respect. His manner of giving audience to strangers is somewhat singular: he appears seated in the middle of the apartment, with all his courtiers about him, sitting against the wall, each with a goad or staff, or club in his hand, longer or shorter, according to his rank; the longer are the more dignified. As soon as the stranger enters the place, all these courtiers fall foul of him, and bastinado him till he has regained the door, and got hold of it with his hand; upon which they return to their seats, and he is complimented as if nothing like it had been done to him. I, myself, (says he,) did not fare one jot better, notwithstanding the peaceable and friendly offices that had passed between us: and when I asked the meaning of so strange a ceremony, I was answered, that it was to make those that came among them sensible of the valour and bravery of their nation above all others, and how reasonable it is for them to behave submissively to it."

These people, who are as indolent as they are proud, wholly neglect agriculture, so that the food of their cattle is derived from the spontaneous productions of their spacious plains and vallies. They attend to their cattle, indeed, for the sake of their flesh, which they eat raw, and is their principal food. They have neither bread, nor any thing else to supply the want of that necessary article. When they meet with any in their warlike excursions, they eat it with great rapacity; and though they admire it, yet they will not trouble themselves to cultivate the grain to make it.

The Gallas have long harassed the Abyssinians, committed great depredations on them, and rendered themselves masters of several of their back settlements.

Though of a ferocious disposition, they possess some good qualities, being honest and true to their promise, and never known to violate an oath. They consider this as the most solemn of all engagements, the ceremony of which is thus performed: They bring a sheep to a proper place appointed, where they anoint it with butter; after which the persons, or, if it be taken in the name of the tribe or family, the heads of it lay their hands upon the head of the sheep, and solemnly protest that they will religiously observe every part of their engagement. They offer as a reason for the institution of this ceremony, that as the sheep is in some sense the mother of all that swear, and butter is an emblem of the love that subsists between the mother and the children, that oath ought to be held inviolate that is taken upon the head of a mother. Such are the principles, maxims, and customs of these barbarians.



C H A P. XVII.

DESCRIPTION of the COAST of ABEX or HABESH, of the TOWNS UPON IT, and the DIGNITY of the KING.

THIS coast once formed a part of the empire of Abyssinia; but at the beginning of the last century it fell into the hands of the Turks, who, at the same time, made themselves masters of all the bays and ports belonging to it; so that ever since the Abyssinians have been cut off from all communication with the Red Sea.

The climate of this coast being very sultry, and the soil in general sandy and barren, the produce must of course be scanty. Here are many animals, tame and wild; and they have some deer and sheep; but grain of every kind is brought from other parts. The country here labours under a dearth of water.

This coast is divided into two parts, the northern and the southern. The towns of the northern are Suakin and Arkiko. The former is the residence of the governor, and is pretty large and populous. The latter has a castle, but it is small, and poorly inhabited. The southern reaches to the end of the coast, and includes the province of Dancali, of which Abex is the capital. Of this part little can be said worthy of notice, but that its chief produce is salt. Here is a sea-port called Balyur, at which the Portuguese missionaries first landed; and as their reception and treatment from the Chiek, or king, were rather singular, we shall present the reader with a relation of them.

As soon as the king heard of their arrival, he sent to invite the patriarch (or principal missionary) and his retinue to his court, which was about three or four days journey from Balyur, and dispatched his own son to meet them in the way, and conduct them to the royal palace, or rather camp, which they found to consist only of half a dozen tents, with about a score huts fenced in with a thorn hedge, and shaded by some wild kind of trees.

The hall of audience, where they were received by the king, was a large tent or hut, about a musket shot from the rest. At the upper end was a kind of throne about two feet from the ground, made of stone and clay, and covered with a carpet and two velvet cushions. At the other end, opposite to the throne, was the king's horse, with the saddle, and other accoutrements suspended on one side. Round the hall were about fifty young men sitting cross-legged on the ground; and when the Portuguese missionaries were admitted, they were made to sit down in the same posture.

In a short time the king entered the hall, preceded by some of his domestics, one of whom carried an earthen pitcher full of hydromel, or wine made of honey; another a drinking cup made of porcelain; a third carried a cocoa-nut shell filled with tobacco; and a fourth a silver tobacco-pipe and some fire. Next to them came the king, dressed in a light silk stuff, with a turban on his head, from the edges of which hung a parcel of rings, that dangled before his forehead. Instead of a sceptre, he held in his hand a short kind of javelin. He was followed by all the chief officers of his

court and household; and among them were his lord high steward, the superintendant of his finances, and the captain of his guard. The respect paid him at his coming in was by standing on their feet, and squatting down again twice; after which they went towards the throne to kiss his hand. The audience was short, but full of the most bombastic profession of love and esteem on his side, and of respect and gratitude on theirs: but this behaviour soon altered; for when, on the next morning, they came to make their presents to him, instead of the king's accepting them, the patriarch, who was the person that brought them to him, met with a severe reprimand, for daring to affront a monarch like him with such trifling presents, and was bid to take them away out of his sight. The patriarch readily obeyed, without betraying either fear, or any other emotion than that of disdain, after having given him to understand, that they were of more value than he ought to have expected from religious persons, who had renounced the world, and forsaken their native country, for the sake of carrying their religion into the Abyssinian empire; and told him at parting, that since he did not think them worth his acceptance, the next he sent for from them should be much less valuable.

This spirited behaviour of the patriarch greatly surprised the king, who suffered him to go away with the presents; but being unwilling to lose them, sent one of his officers to fetch them back, with orders to insist upon some addition being made to them. He was glad, however, to take them as they were, the patriarch, on his side, insisting upon retrenching them; so that when they were brought again, the greedy monarch received them with visible marks of dissatisfaction and resentment. The disgust in which he held them on this account was soon evinced; for he not only detained them, upon some pretence or other, longer at his court than was necessary for getting things ready for their departure, but privately forbid his subjects to sell them any kinds of provisions at any price; so that they must have been obliged either to satiate his avarice by larger presents, or have been in danger of starving, had it not been for the spirited patriarch, who expostulated with him on the impropriety of his conduct, and at the same time threatened him with the emperor's resentment. Notwithstanding this, however, he not only postponed their departure from day to day, but suffered them to be insulted by his subjects, in hopes of finding some pretences for extorting from them farther presents for their dismissal. To avoid this, the only expedient they could find, was to bribe one of his favourite ministers with a valuable gift, who soon after obtained their audience of leave, and such supplies of carriages, provisions, &c. as were necessary to proceed on their embassy to the Abyssinian court. But before their departure they were obliged to compliment all the officers of the Dancali court, from the most elevated to the lowest.

C H A P. XVIII.

N U B I A, O R S E N N A R.

THE kingdom of Nubia is bounded on the north by Egypt, on the south by Abyssinia, on the east by the Red Sea, and on the west by Goaga. It is 940 miles in length, and 600 in breadth. The river Nile runs through it; on the banks of which, and those of

some other rivers, it is pretty fertile; but in other places it is barren, sandy, and destitute of water.

The inhabitants of Nubia are, in general, low in stature, but stout and courageous. They are quite black, and their faces much disfigured, not only by the flat-

ness of their noses, but by the marks of the small-pox, that disease being so prevalent here, that they frequently have it twice or three times.

Their dress is much the same as that of the Ethiopians. They are greatly addicted to drunkenness; are avaricious, base, and designing; and pride themselves not only in cheating strangers, but each other. The principal part of them are Mahometans; but they pay as little regard to religion as to honour and honesty. Those who live in towns or cities employ themselves chiefly in commerce; but such as reside in the villages follow husbandry and fishing.

The king of Nubia is despotic. He has a spacious palace, which is sumptuously furnished. He is very fond of shooting, and frequently takes excursions with his nobility in pursuit of that diversion. He and his chief nobles attend four days in the week to business of state; at which times they also administer justice in all cases, whether of a civil or criminal nature. This they do with great expedition, especially in the latter case, where, if the person be found guilty, sentence is no

sooner passed than executed. For trifling matters they are punished with the bastinado; but in cases of murder and treason they are put to death, the manner of doing which is by laying the criminal on his back, and beating him on the breast with a stick till he expires, which, from the severity of the strokes, is generally effected in a very short time.

The language of the Nubians, though peculiar to themselves, bears some kind of affinity to the Arabic.

The principal towns here are Nubia or Sennar, the capital, and Dungala. The former is spacious and populous, and abounds with provisions. The inhabitants carry on some trade here with those of the neighbouring town, as well as of Cairo, and other parts of Egypt.

Dungala is a considerable town, but the houses are low and mean. The inhabitants carry on some foreign trade.

Here are other towns and villages, of which those situated near the Nile are tolerably pleasant, but the rest are poor, wretched, and unhealthy spots.

C H A P. XIX.

E G Y P T.

THERE is not a more striking instance of the mutability of all sublunary objects, and the effects produced by the revolutions of time, than what may be displayed on a comparative view of the former and present state of the country we are about to describe.

Egypt might once be deemed the metropolis of the world, the seat of science, the nursery of the arts, and grand reservoir of curious productions. If considered in relation to what constitutes the real power of a state, it is now become feeble, the arts cease to be cultivated, and nothing remains but the shadow of what it has been.

Notwithstanding, however, the depredations of time, we cannot survey the extent and magnificence of its ruins, without reflecting with pleasure on the means by which it had once attained to such a pinnacle of grandeur. There are still remaining memorials which ages cannot destroy, which have resisted revolutions, and demonstrate that in Egypt the greatest kings endeavoured to acquire fame by undertakings the most arduous for the benefit of their country. In a word, from a general survey of a spot as renowned as any upon the globe, the mind cannot but derive most rational entertainment.

SECTION I.

Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Climate, Soil, particular Description of the river Nile, Mountains, &c.

THE opinions of authors concerning the origin of the name of this country are various: the most probable is that it was called Egypt from a Greek word signifying a vulture, a bird of a blackish hue, alluding to the blackness of its soil, and the sable colour of its inhabitants.

Egypt is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, on the south by Abyssinia or Upper Ethiopia, on the east by the Red Sea, and on the west by the Desert of Barca, and unknown parts of Africa. It is computed at 600 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and is situated between 20 and 32 degrees of north latitude, and 28 and 36 degrees of east longitude.

Some geographers divide this country into two parts, the Upper and Lower Egypt; others into three, viz. The Upper, properly so called, or Thebais; the Middle, or Heptanomis; and the Lower Egypt, called also Delta. We shall, in the course of our description, adopt the latter mode, as most explanatory.

The climate of Egypt must be very warm from its being contiguous to the tropic of Cancer, as well as from its sandy soil. Though the air is generally dry, yet great dews fall after the swelling of the Nile, which continue for some months. In the Delta, or Lower Egypt, it sometimes rains a little in the winter; but in the Upper, towards the cataracts, seldom or ever. The first summer (for they reckon two) which is March, April, and May, is the most sickly season, because the changeable weather, excessive heats, and hot winds, cause distempers: but in the second, viz. June, July, and August, and in autumn and winter, they breathe a cooler air, the weather is more fixed, and the country of course more pleasant. The coldest season is in February, when the opulent people wear furs. The north, called by the ancients the Etesian wind, begins to blow towards the close of May, greatly refreshes the air, and thereby conduces to the health and happiness of the inhabitants.

The fertility of Egypt, and the excellence of its productions, are particularly mentioned by the ancients, and by Moses himself, Gen. xiii. 10. Its great fertility is derived from the overflowing of the Nile. This celebrated river, called by the ancients Abanchi, signifying in the Abyssian language, *The Father of Rivers*, has its sources in Ethiopia. It enters Egypt almost under the tropic of Cancer, crosses it from south to north, to about four leagues below Cairo, where, dividing itself into two branches, it forms the Island of Delta. It is likewise only towards the extremity of this island, which the Egyptians name, in Arabic, Batn-el-Bacara, (the belly of the cow) that the plains on each side the Nile, shut in by the higher grounds, are capable of cultivation.

The river passes violently down seven cataracts, from a very considerable height between rugged rocks and precipices, with so great a noise as to be heard several miles off. The people of those parts used formerly to entertain strangers with a surprising spectacle, which is but seldom now practised. Two of them get into a small boat, one to guide it, and the other to bale it clear of the water. After having borne the violence of the agitated waves for some time, they dexterously steer their boat through the narrow channel, thereby avoiding the rocks, and letting themselves be carried down by the falling river, direct their little boat with their hands, and rushing headlong, to the great terror of the spectators, who think them utterly lost and swallowed up, they appear again on the water, far from the place from

from which they fell, as if they had been shot out of an engine.

The annual inundation of the Nile in a country where it scarcely ever rains, and which the heat of the climate, and the very nature of the soil, seems to have devoted to perpetual drought and sterility, is, without doubt, a most surprising phenomenon.

Though the river begins to swell in May, no public notice is taken of it till about the 20th of June. The progress of the inundation is observed at the Nilometer, or Mekias, as called by the Arabs, situated at the southern point of the Isle of Rhoda, opposite Old Cairo. This Nilometer is an octagonal column of white marble, divided into 22 equal parts, and all, except the 2d from the bottom, are subdivided into 24 inches. Public criers, distributed in each quarter of the capital, every day make known to the public the rising of the waters, till they are come to the height proper for opening the grand canal, by which they are conveyed to the middle of the city, and the cisterns. The height of the inundation is usually 16 cubits, or 24 feet; the Egyptian cubit being a foot and a half. If it exceeds that height, it does much mischief, not only by overflowing houses and drowning cattle, but also by engendering a great number of insects, which destroy the fruits of the earth. The cry Oof-Allah, signifying *God has kept his promise*, proclaims the opening of the canal. Children, bearing streamers of different colours, accompany the crier, and diffuse a general joy at the certainty of plenty, and the event is celebrated with universal festivity.

The ancient Egyptians had the barbarous custom of sacrificing a young girl to the river, when the waters rose to a sufficient height for opening the canal.

Here it is to be observed, that the Grand Seignior is not entitled to his annual tribute till the canal is opened at Grand Cairo; and when it is opened, if the waters are not 16 cubits high, the people refuse the payment of the tribute.

As the river cannot of itself overflow the lands every where in the necessary proportion, they have cut canals, and formed a variety of engines, for the purpose of conveyance. There are also a number of wells, from which the water is drawn to water the gardens and fruit-trees. Numbers of oxen are daily employed in this single labour, besides the men, who draw water in wicker baskets, so closed and well lined, that not a drop runs through.

It is remarkable that while other rivers carry off the heart of the lands they overflow, the Nile, by the mud or slime it brings down with it, fattens the earth, and renders it fruitful. The water must be purified before it is drank. This is done by mixing bitter almonds, pounded to dust, in a jar full of water, and kept turning with the arm for some minutes. It is then left to settle, and, in five or six hours, the noxious particles subside to the bottom of the vessel, and the water becomes limpid and excellent.

When the Nile is returned within its banks, the canals supply the people and cattle with water, which maidens are continually to be seen fetching thence, according to the ancient custom so often taken notice of in scripture.

It was, without doubt, to provide against those years when the Nile does not overflow a great part of the country, that the ancient sovereigns of Egypt cut so many canals, the principal of which are still kept in order, but the greater part neglected, and consequently one half of the country is deprived of cultivation. Those that convey the water to Cairo, into the province of Fayoom, and to Alexandria, are most attended to by government. An officer is appointed to watch this last, and hinder the Arabs, who receive the superfluous waters of this canal, from turning them off before Alexandria is provided, or opening the canal before the time fixed, which would hinder the increase of the Nile. That which conveys the waters into Fayoom is watched in like manner, and cannot be opened before that of Cairo, which is called the canal of Trajan.

There are great numbers of passage-boats upon the Nile; and as soon as night draws on the passengers betake themselves to their arms; for the river often swarms with pirates, who attack boats under favour of darkness, assassinate passengers that are off their guard, and seize their effects.

The mountains four leagues from the Nile, and facing Cairo, are a ridge of rocks of 40 or 50 feet high, divide the plains of Libya, and seem as if only intended to serve as a bank to the general inundation. At the summit of the angle of Delta the rocks of Libya, and the coasts of Arabia, open to the view, and appear to recede from each other towards the east and west. This great extent of country, from the kingdom of Barca, is either inundated by the river, or at least liable so to be.

SECTION II.

Natural Productions of Egypt, Vegetable, Animal, &c.

FROM the facility with which the country is watered, and the richness of the soil, the Egyptians have not the laborious task of ploughing, digging, or breaking the clods; but when the water has retired, they have only to mingle a little sand with the earth to abate its strength, tempering the dryness of the sand with dung; after which they sow with little pains, and almost without charge. They sow the spring corn and vegetables ordinarily in October and November, as the waters fall. Within two months the ground is covered with all sorts of grain and pulse, as wheat, rice, barley, beans, &c. With barley they feed their cattle, and make an intoxicating kind of liquor by fermentation, which is the common drink of the lower class of people. Their harvest is in March or April. They have also sugar-canes, melons, dates, figs, cucumbers, and other vegetables, which they eat in hot weather as cooling food. As they have no common grass, they supply the want of it by sowing their land with clover. The lotus is an aquatic plant peculiar to Egypt, which grows in rivulets, and by the side of lakes. There are two species, the one bearing a white, and the other a blueish flower.

Most of their trees, especially those in their gardens, are exotics. Their most common trees are the sount, which bears a pod used instead of bark in tanning of leather; the tamarisk, Pharaoh's fig, the sycamore of the ancients, the palm or date tree, and another species of the palm called the dome-tree. The papyrus is a production of Egypt, though it is not so plentiful as formerly, the inhabitants having greatly diminished the quantity by digging up the roots for fuel. This reed grew chiefly on the borders of the Nile, and served the ancients for the purpose of writing upon. Hence the origin of the word *paper*. The bark was divided into thin flakes; these were laid flat on a smooth surface, moistened with the glutinous waters of the Nile, compressed together, and then dried in the sun for use. One sort of the flax of this reed was so very fine, and they dressed and spun it so curiously, that the threads could scarce be seen. It grew in such plenty, that they had not only enough to cloath their priests, who wore nothing else, but persons of rank in general.

Of animals there are wild and tame oxen, camels, asses, goats, and sheep, of which there is great plenty. The buffalos, in the hot season, live in the Nile, lying among the waters up to the neck, and feeding upon the herbs that grow upon the banks. There are vast numbers of antelopes, and a large kind of ape, with a head somewhat like a dog's, whence it was called cynocephalus. Camelions are common in this country. There are also tigers, hyenas, wolves, foxes, &c.

The crocodile, the most celebrated of all the Egyptian animals, is terrible either on land or in the water, but more particularly so in the latter element. They are often seen basking themselves on sunny banks, where they lay for many hours motionless, and exactly resemble the trunk of a tree. On the approach of a living

living creature, they dart upon it; run to the water, and immediately plunge to the bottom with their prey. During the floods they sometimes enter the cottages of the natives, and furiously seize upon man, woman, or child, cattle, domestic animals, &c. Indeed, instances have been known of their taking a man out of a canoe, and diving to the bottom, without its being in the power of those who were in sight to afford him any assistance.

All the parts of the crocodile are remarkably strong; the teeth are exceeding sharp; and, above all, the tail is singularly dreadful; with a blow from this, it can overturn a boat, or stun the strongest animal. Many ridiculous stories have been told concerning this creature. Some have proceeded from travellers taking the most absurd tales upon trust, which we shall therefore reject, as being determined to adhere only to matters duly authenticated.

Crocodiles are not fond of salt water, but love to continue in rivers. They lay their eggs in the sand, having previously dug a hole with their fore paws to deposit them in. Having delivered some of their burden, they cover up the place with great care, and then retire. The next day they return again, uncover the place, lay about the same number of eggs, and then retire till the ensuing day, when they repeat the same for the last time, and then finally close the hole.

As soon as the eggs are vivified by the heat of the sun, which happens at the expiration of thirty days, the young ones begin to break the shell. The mother, by instinct, goes at the same time to assist them by scratching away the sand. The moment they are at liberty, the strongest make towards the water, and the rest mount upon the back of the mother, who carries them safely to it. "But the moment they arrive at the water (says a late authentic traveller) all natural connection ceases: when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, she and the male become among the number of their most formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can: the whole brood scatters into different parts at the bottom, and by far the greatest number are destroyed."

This animal is not only an enemy to its own species, but is at universal enmity with all other living creatures. Man is its professed foe, and kills it to prevent its depredations, as well as to eat it. Indeed its flesh is but indifferent food, though the eggs are deemed great delicacies, and are sought after with avidity, not only by man, but by many beasts, and birds of prey. The vulture is particularly successful in destroying its eggs, which they effect by the following stratagem: they hide themselves among the rushes and shrubs about the banks of those waters where the crocodile inhabits; then watching till she has deposited her eggs, they go to the place as soon as she retires, scratch away the sand, and feast upon the spoil. At other times, when they have not discovered a crocodile's nest, they are equally destructive to the young fry as they run to the water.

The ichneumon, or rat of Pharaoh, is another terrible enemy to the crocodile species, as it destroys both eggs and young fry with great avidity. On account of this peculiar excellency, as the inhabitants of this country have a just right to esteem it, together with the rest of its perfections, for it is equally destructive to camelions, serpents, frogs, rats, mice, and most obnoxious animals and reptiles that it is able to master, the ancient Egyptians deified it, and held it in the utmost veneration. This animal, with respect to shape and colour, resembles a badger. It has a snout like a hog, with which it routs up the earth and sand; the nose is prominent, and the ears short and round. It is of a yellowish colour at all times, except when angry; but if provoked, it bristles up its hairs like a porcupine, and then appears of two colours, which are white and yellow, that run in distinct streaks. The legs are black, the tail long, and the tongue and teeth like those of a cat. It is an amphibious creature, can bear to remain under water much longer than the otter, and is bold, active,

and nimble: but that it creeps down the throat of the crocodile, and knaws its intestines, is entirely fabulous, and was one of the errors of oral information, when conjectures were relied on more than facts, and common report believed without having recourse to experiments.

The Christians ride upon asses, through the compulsion of the Turks. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is found in Upper Egypt. The animals of this country seem to partake of the fecundity of the soil, as they are remarkably prolific.

In Egypt there are birds of various kinds, as the ostrich, the eagle, the hawk, the pelican, the flamingo, the stork, the wild goose, &c. &c. The most remarkable are the following.

The ibis is so peculiar to Egypt, that it pines and dies away if carried out of that country, but is much esteemed for the great use it is of in destroying certain noxious insects which the south winds bring from the deserts of Libya.

The Egyptian stork (which some have erroneously supposed to be the ibis) has no voice, or at least makes no other noise than what is occasioned by its striking the under and upper chaps together very forcibly. There is one peculiar quality in the stork which seems more forcible than in any other living creature, viz. an uncommon degree of filial affection. The singular veneration of this bird for its parent was observed in the earliest ages; hence it was called in Hebrew *chesidah*, a word which implies compassion and piety; and in Greek it was termed *storge*, which signifies natural affection. From the latter it is probable that the English word *stork* came to us, through the medium of our Saxon ancestors.

This bird has a long bill, and long reds leg, which are peculiarly adapted to the nature of its getting its prey; for as it seeks for serpents, frogs, &c. in wet and marshy places, its long legs serve as stilts; and as it flies away with its food to its nest, its long bill, which is jagged, enables it to secure it. It lays but four eggs, and sits only thirty days. Its filial piety has been the admiration of all ages, and drawn the attention of the most judicious and learned. One of the seven wise men, when Cræsus asked him which was the most happy animal, replied, "The stork: because (said he) it performs what is just and right by nature, without any compulsive law."

The Egyptian pelican, with respect to size and shape, resembles a swan. Its colour, however, is not so pure a white, nor is the beak similar, the latter being about a foot in length, and very thick, the colour blue and yellow, and the point sharp. The upper chap is formed like the same part in most other birds, but the lower is unlike any thing appertaining to the rest of the feathered race: it does not consist of one solid piece, but is composed of two long flat pieces, connected by a membrane which extends to the throat, but is flabby and loose, on which account it is capable of containing a vast quantity of provision.

The ostrich is a very large bird, being usually seven feet in height from the top of the head to the ground; but the neck itself is so long, that it comprizes three of those feet. From the top of the head to the rump, when the neck is stretched out in a right line, it is about six feet; and the tail is twelve inches in length. The wings are exceeding strong, but at the same time they are too short to enable the bird to fly, though they serve as sails, and assist it to run with great expedition. The plumage is black, white, or grey: the large feathers at the extremities of the wings and tail are white, the others are black and white intermixed. The sides and thighs have no feathers, nor are there any under the wings. All the feathers of ostriches are as soft as down. Dr. Brooke, in his Natural History, says, "An ostrich is the most greedy bird that is known, for it will devour leather, grass, bread, hair, metals, or any thing else

that is given him. However, he does not digest iron and stones, as some have pretended, but voids them whole. These substances enter into the gizzard. A remarkable instance of this occurred in an ostrich belonging to a Morocco ambassador here, and intended as a present to the king's menagerie. I, among many others, went to see it, when it plucked off the brass shell of a button from a gentleman's coat, and swallowed it: a few days afterwards it sickened and died, when, upon opening it, the button was found in the gizzard, which it had gangrened."

The lakes of Delta, near the sea, afford great quantities of fish, but not in great variety, there not being above seven or eight sorts, two of which the Egyptians salt and send in large stores to Syria, Cyprus, and Constantinople. The bed of the Nile being very full of mud and slime communicates a muddy taste to the fish that feed in it. They have various methods of catching the fish, but the most curious and singular is that with a bird. When the fishermen have set up their long nets, which they draw quite round, they let two tame pelicans swim in the lake, having fastened a thread to their eye-lids, by means of which they can tie up their eyes during the whole fishery. The fishermen are obliged to take this precaution, in order to prevent the birds from eating too many fish. The pelican, having a strong scent, pursues the fish around him, and the people on its sides prevent them from getting away by driving them into the nets.

The dolphins, which are very numerous, especially in the Mendesian mouth, pursue the fish, which makes them take refuge in little ponds full of weeds: as soon as they are got into these ponds they cannot escape, because the fishermen shut up the entrance into the lake with nets. The fishermen, who reap so great an advantage from those pursuits of the dolphins, almost look upon it as a miracle, and they are ignorant enough to take the dolphins to be some good spirits sent on purpose to do them this service.

There are various kinds of reptiles here. The horned viper, so called from having a kind of horns, is of excellent use in medicine. There is a serpent of great bulk called Thaibanne, and several sorts of asps, whose poisons have different effects, though finally all are mortal. There are swarms of gnats and musquitos in the air and in the houses, which greatly annoy the inhabitants.

Having thus treated of the natural productions of this country, we shall proceed to consider it in a distinct point of view, beginning, as proposed, with Upper-Egypt, or Thebais.

SECTION III.

UPPER EGYPT, OR THEBAIS.

THEBAIS, so called by the Greeks from Thebes, its metropolis, is the most southern part of Egypt, next to Ethiopia, and nearly as large as all the rest, including the country on both sides the Nile down to Heptanomis. There were formerly in this part of Egypt a number of large and magnificent cities besides Thebes, Lycopolis, Abydos, Tentyris, Hermonthis, Latopolis, Coptos, Anteopolis, &c. &c. In these were temples of several deities, and tombs of their ancient princes.

Some late travellers inform us there are not only several obelisks and colossuses still remaining here, more beautiful than in Lower Egypt, but pyramids higher than those near Cairo, with other stupendous works. In confirmation of this, a person of rank, who lately visited these parts, affirms, that the people of the country assured him the funeral monuments in Thebais were innumerable, and surpassed, in magnificence, those of Memphis and Alexandria. They added, that there were still to be seen temples with columns of red granite as large as that of Pompey, and that the paintings within were not less remarkable. The same person ob-

serves further, that it cannot be doubted but that the Upper Egypt contains amazing treasures buried under its ruins, as a captain lately discovered an urn filled with gold medals, of which he secretly melted down a great number.

Sayd, supposed to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes, is the capital of Upper Egypt, and was formerly one of the finest cities in the universe. It is said by some persons who have visited it, to be the most capital antique curiosity now extant, containing vast columns of marble and porphyry which lie half buried in the ground, and statues and obelisks of a prodigious size, adorned with hieroglyphics.

There are many other magnificent remains of Thebes, but the most remarkable are the colossal statues of Memnon: they are made of a particular sort of hard granite, which most resembles the eagle-stone.

SECTION IV.

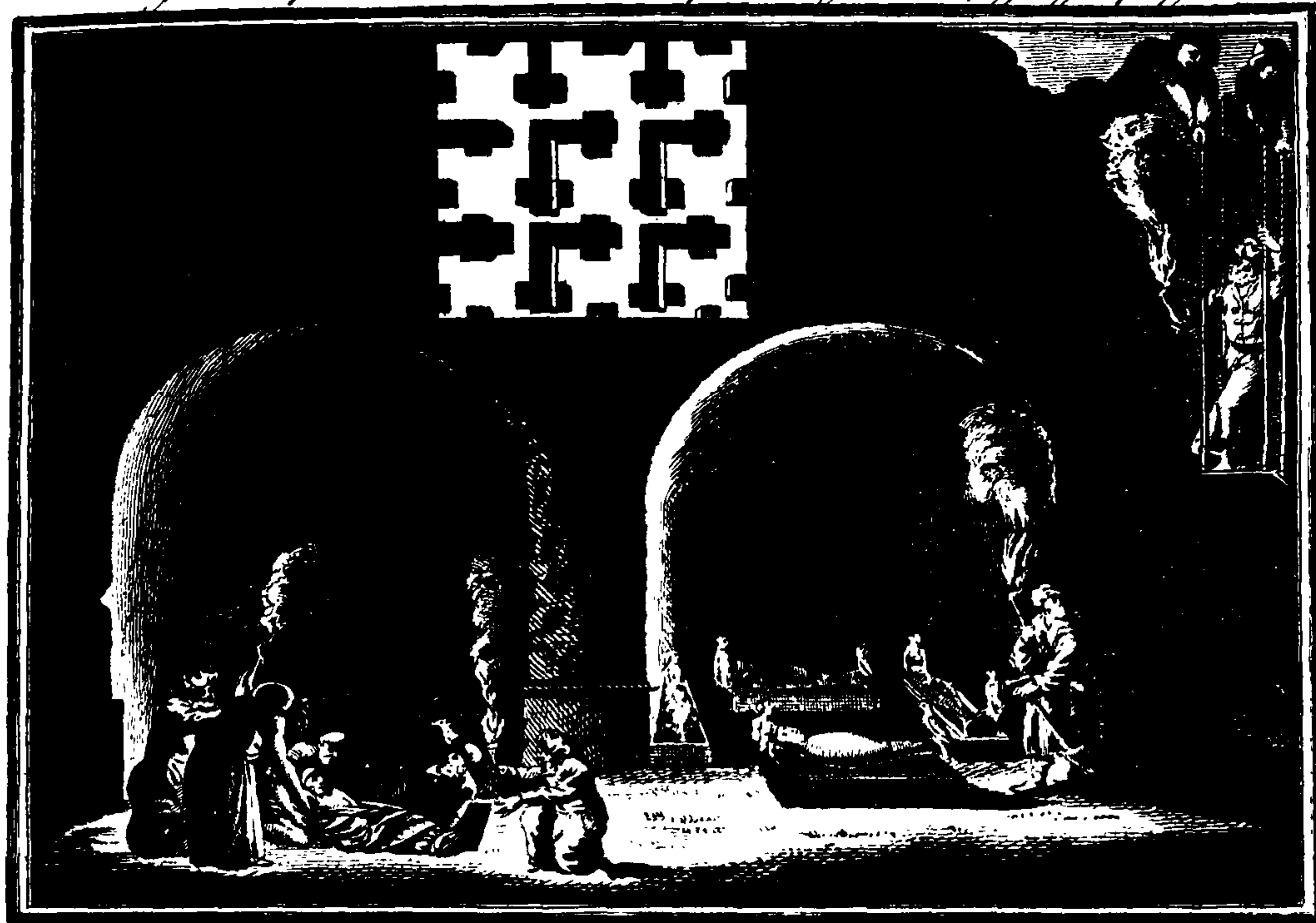
MIDDLE EGYPT, DISTINGUISHED BY THE NAME OF HEPTANOMIS.

THE appellation of Heptanomis alludes to the seven names or præfectures into which this part of Egypt was originally divided. Like the other parts it once contained extensive and opulent cities, of which the chief worthy of notice is Memphis, celebrated for those astonishing monuments of antiquity the pyramids, or burial places of their kings. These grand objects of curiosity have long attracted the attention of men of speculation, and the accounts of travellers have been read with infinite delight. These pyramids are constructed on that ridge of rocks which is the boundary of Libya, and generally called the Pyramids of Giza. They are about 20 in number, but two of them have been principal objects of attention. We have revised the respective details concerning them, and present our readers with the following account, as related by a character eminent for rank and literature, and the most modern that can be obtained. He writes thus: "We left Giza about an hour after midnight, and scarcely had proceeded a quarter of a league before we perceived the tops of the two grand pyramids. We were but three leagues from them, and the moon shone on them with full splendour. They appeared like two pointed rocks, with their summits in the clouds; and the aspect of these antique monuments, which have survived nations, empires, and the ravages of time, inspired veneration.

"We approached the pyramids, which, with aspect varying, according to the windings of the plain we traversed, and the situation of the clouds, became more and more distinct. At half past three in the morning we found ourselves at the foot of the greatest. We left our cloaths at the door where it entered, and descended each with a torch. We proceeded till we came to a place where we were obliged to crawl, to pass into the second entry, which corresponded to the first. We then ascended on our knees, supporting ourselves with our hands against the sides, otherwise we were in danger of sliding precipitately down an inclining plane, the notches or steps of which did not afford certain foothold. We fired a pistol about the middle, the fearful noise of which was long reverberated among the cavities of this immense edifice, and which awakened thousands of bats, which were very large, that darting up and down, beat against our hands and faces, and extinguished several of our lights. When we came to the top we entered, through a very low door, a great oblong chamber, entirely of granite. Seven enormous stones, crossing from one wall to the other, formed the ceiling. A sarcophagus, cut from a block of marble, is placed at one end. It has been violated by man, for it is empty, and the lid has been torn off. Bits of earthen vases are scattered round. Beneath this chamber is a lesser one, where is the entrance of a conduit full of rubbish.

"After

Engraved for **BANKES'S** *Complete System of Geography.*



The Inside of an EGYPTIAN-SEPULCHRE.



EGYPTIAN-MUMMIES.

"After examining these caverns, where the light of day never enters, and the shades of eternal night grow more thick and dark, we descended by the way we came, taking care not to tumble into a well which is on the left, and reaches to the bottom of the pyramid. The air within this edifice being never changed, is so hot and foul as almost to suffocate. When we came out we were bathed in sweat, as pale as death; and might have been taken for spectres rising from the abyss of darkness.

"Having eagerly breathed the open air, and refreshed ourselves, we hastened to scale this mountain of man. It is composed of more than 200 layers of stone, that recede in proportion to their height, which is from four feet to two. These enormous steps must all be mounted to arrive at the summit, and this we undertook, beginning at the north-east angle; which is the least damaged, but did not accomplish our task till after half an hour's severe labour.

"Day began to break, and the east gradually assumed more glowing colours. We sat enjoying a pure air, and a most agreeable coolness. The sun-beams soon gilded the top of Mokkatam (a mountain which overlooks Grand Cairo) and soon rose above it in the horizon. We received the first rays, and beheld, at a distance, the tops of the pyramids of Saccara, three leagues from us, in the Plain of Mummies. The rapid light discovered every moment new beauties. The herds left the hanlets, the boats spread their sails, and our eyes followed the vast windings of the Nile. On the north were sterile hills, and barren sands; on the south the river and waving fields. To the east stood the small town of Giza; and the towers of Tostat, with the castle of Salah Eddin, terminated the prospect. The universe contains not a prospect more variegated, more magnificent, or more awful.

"Having engraved our names on the top of the pyramid, we cautiously descended, for the deep abyss lay before us: a piece of stone breaking under our hands, or beneath our feet, would have cast us down headlong.

"Once more safe at the bottom, we made the tour of the pyramid, contemplating it with a kind of terror. On a near view it seems composed of detached rocks; but at 100 paces distant the largeness of the stones is lost in the immensity of the structure, and they appear very small."

Many travellers and learned men, from the time of Herodotus, the Greek historian, to the present date, have measured the grand pyramid, and the difference of their calculations, far from removing, has but augmented doubt concerning it. A modern writer of repute says that its perpendicular height is near 500 feet.

The noble traveller before-mentioned observes, that those persons who have pretended this pyramid was never finished, because it is open, and is not coated, are mistaken. That it was coated is proved by the remains of mortar still found in several parts of the steps, and by the testimony of Maillet, who visited and examined it many times with all possible care.

The second pyramid is about ten yards south of the first. The architecture of it is much like the former, but it is greatly inferior in size.

The third pyramid is said to exceed the others in the beauty of its workmanship; but the rest contain no particulars worthy of description.

Each pyramid has its catacombs (grottos or subterraneous cavities for the burial of the mummies, or embalmed bodies.) The opening at the side is hollowed in such a declined direction, that a person cannot descend into it without being let down by a rope.

As our commerce with the eastern world is now of such real concern, as to make every thing which relates to it more or less interesting; and as the land passage to India is now more frequented than formerly; every thing which may, in the slightest degree, tend to facilitate that passage, is an object of public attention. By way of caution therefore to future travellers, we insert the following narrative respecting one of these catacombs.

The celebrated AARON HILL, when in Egypt, had the curiosity to examine a catacomb. He was accompanied in his expedition by two other gentlemen, and conducted by a guide, who was one of the natives of the country. They at length arrived at the spot, and without taking notice of some fellows who were sauntering about the place, descended by ropes into the vault. No sooner were they let down, than they were presented with a spectacle which struck them with terror: Two gentlemen apparently starved to death, lay before them. One of these victims had a tablet in his hand, on which was written, in pathetic language, the story of their lamentable fate. It seems they were brothers of rank and family in Venice, and having in the course of their travels entrusted themselves with one of the natives, for the purpose of visiting the inside of the catacomb, the perfidious villain had left them there to perish.

The danger to which Mr. Hill and his friends were exposed, instantly alarmed them. They had scarcely read the shocking tale, when looking up, they beheld their inhuman guide, assisted by two others, whom they had seen near the spot, closing the entrance into the vault.

They were now reduced to the utmost distress; however, they drew their swords, and were determined to make some desperate effort to rescue themselves from a scene so truly dreadful. With this resolution they were groping about at random in the dark, when they were startled at the groans of some one seemingly in the agonies of death. They attended to the dismal sound, and at length, by means of a glimmering light from the top of the catacomb, they saw a man just murdered, and a little beyond they discovered his inhuman murderers flying with the utmost precipitation. They pursued them immediately, and though they were not able to come up with them, they however had the good fortune to reach the opening through which these wretches escaped out of the cavern, before they had time to roll the stone on the top of it. Thus Mr. Hill and his friends were by a miracle saved.

This memorable circumstance will, without doubt, be almost uppermost in the mind of the oriental traveller; and while he is impressed with horror at the baseness and cruelty of the transaction, it will at the same time quicken his own caution, and be the best guide to his conduct.

At a small distance from these pyramids, and about a quarter of a mile from the river, is a monstrous figure called a sphynx, the face of which represents that of a beautiful woman, and the body that of a lion. This extraordinary figure is said to have been the sepulchre of king Amasis.

This sphynx is one entire stone, smooth and polished, and was cut out of the solid rock. Travellers differ with respect to the dimensions of this figure, but the most just appear to be those given by Dr. Pocock, who says, the lower part of the neck, or beginning of the breast is 33 feet wide, and 20 thick to the back; and thence a large hole in the back 73 feet; and from thence to the tail 30 feet. Besides the above-mentioned hole in the back, there is another on the top of the head, by which it is conjectured the priests entered it to deliver their oracles. The Egyptians hieroglyphically represented a harlot by a sphynx, having the amiable face of a woman, and the rapacious strength of a lion.

The following observations may serve to explain the origin and meaning of the Egyptian hieroglyphics. Ideas were first conveyed by emblems, or picturesque representations of things. This being the first method of writing, it was generally understood by every one; but when characters were introduced instead of pictures, these emblems became at length unintelligible. In process of time, the priests of the Egyptians, to keep the mysteries of their religion from the knowledge of the common people, used hieroglyphics, or sacred characters, as the term or phrase imports, being a compound

pound of two Greek words, the one signifying 'sacred,' and the other to engrave or carve.

Many of the poor in Egypt are maintained by being employed to dig beneath the barren sands in search of these sepulchres. When their attempt proves successful, they make a small well of about three feet broad, and 16 or 18 feet deep; into which one with a torch in his hand is easily let down by a rope. At the bottom is a four-square passage, but so low, that they must stoop to go in. At the end of this, they come to the four-square vaulted repository, 24 feet every way, in which are tables cut out of the same rock, whereon the bodies are placed in chests or coffins of wood or stone, on which are certain hieroglyphic characters.

The mummies, or bodies themselves, are embalmed with spices and bitumen; but the chests or coffins wherein the mummies lie, and the winding sheets in which they are wrapped, are richly gilt, streaked with various colours, and curiously ornamented with hieroglyphics.

The methods taken by the ancient Egyptians to preserve the bodies of the dead are thus described by a late traveller: "In the preparing them, (says he) to keep them from putrefaction, they drew out the brains at the nostrils, and supplied their place with preservative spices: then cutting up the belly with an Ethiopian stone, and extracting the bowels, they cleansed the inside with wine; and stuffing the same with a composition of Cassia, myrrh, and other odours, closed it again. The poorer sort of people effected the like with bitumen, and the juice of cedars, which, by the extreme bitterness, and drying faculty, not only immediately subdued the cause of interior corruptions, but have preserved them uncorrupted above 3000 years."

Among the catacombs is one for particular birds and animals, which is much more magnificent than the others. These creatures were worshipped by the ancient Egyptians, who so highly revered them, that when they happened to find them dead, they embalmed them, wrapped them up with the same care as they did human bodies, and deposited them in earthen vases, covered over and stopped close with mortar.

Near the city of Memphis was a famous building called the Labyrinth, which, according to Herodotus, was built by twelve Egyptian kings, when Egypt was divided into that number of kingdoms, and consisted of twelve palaces, regularly disposed, that had a communication with each other. These palaces contained three thousand rooms, half of which, interspersed with terraces, were ranged round the halls, and discovered no outlets; the other half were under-ground, cut out of the rocks, and designed for the sepulchres of the kings. The whole building was covered with stone, and adorned with the finest sepulchres. The halls had an equal number of doors, six opening to the north, and six to the south, all encompassed by the same wall; and at the angle where the labyrinth ended stood a pyramid, which was the sepulchre of one of its founders.

This building is called the Labyrinth from its many windings, and the difficulty those who entered it, found in getting out again. The term is often used metaphorically to signify perplexity, or embarrassment.

The lake Maris, in this part of Egypt, has been deemed as extraordinary and worthy of notice, as the labyrinth. Writers differ much in their description of this lake. Some have allowed it an immense circumference, while others have contracted its bounds. Whatever may have been its former fame, it seems now to be involved in the general declension of the country.

SECTION V.

LOWER EGYPT, CALLED LIKEWISE DELTA.

LOWER Egypt received the appellation of Delta from its triangular form, or resemblance of the fourth capital letter in the Greek alphabet. It extended

formerly from Heptanomis to the Mediterranean Sea, and contained not only that part which is encompassed by the arms of the Nile, but also Mareotis and Alexandria with its dependencies to the west; and Cassotis and Augustamnica, with some other territories towards Arabia, to the east.

The Delta is admirably situated for agriculture, being continually watered by machines constructed on the Nile, and the canals cut through it. This rich part of Egypt abounds with rice, barley, and winter fruit. Its fruitful plains, and ever running streams equally gratify the eye and the mind. Besides Alexandria, (of which we shall speak hereafter) there were several cities in this part, but little more is known at present of them than their names.

On Mount Casius was a town of the same name. Strabo says it had a magnificent temple, but it was chiefly remarkable for containing the sepulchre of Pompey, who was buried on this sandy hill, which runs into the sea, and seems to be the place now called by mariners, Tenere. It was near this place that Pompey was treacherously murdered by command of Ptolemy. He was buried by Cordus a Roman soldier; and a superb monument was afterwards erected to his memory, which was repaired and beautified by the emperor Adrian.

With respect to the ancient state of Egypt, we have only to observe, that, according to Diodorus Siculus, it originally contained a vast number of cities, the chief of which was Thebes. Memphis succeeded Thebes, and at last Alexandria to Memphis, as Cairo has since done to Alexandria. We shall treat of the two last in the next Section, when we consider the present state of Egypt.

SECTION VI.

Description of the chief Cities and Places of note in Egypt.

GRAND Cairo, called by the Arabs Misfir, is situated on the right side of the Nile, about half a league from the river, and divided into two towns, the old and the new. It has several squares, sufficiently spacious to invite, and deserve decoration; such as the square of Lusbequia, that of Romelia, and that of the Great Mosque, named Sultan Hassan. There is a considerable dome over this grand edifice. Its cornice, grotesquely sculptured, projects considerably; and its front is faced with the finest marble. The gates are now walled up, and guarded by janissaries. The squares, which become ponds in the time of inundation, are gardens the rest of the year. They are flowed over in September, and covered with flowers and verdure in April.

The streets of Cairo are narrow, ill contrived, and so winding, that it is impossible to follow their direction amidst the multitude of houses which stand crowding on each other. In this city there are near 1000 mosques. The greater part of them have minarets, which are high steeples of slight architecture, and surrounded by galleries. From these minarets, at stated hours, public criers call the people to prayers. Many hundred voices may be heard at one and the same time, thus summoning the inhabitants to their religious duties. The Turks have recourse to this method, from their aversion to the noise of bells, which they represent as offensive to the ear, unmeaning, and only fit for beasts of burthen.

The castle of Cairo is situated on a rocky hill, and surrounded by walls, on which are strong towers. Before the invention of gunpowder, this was a considerable fortress, but being commanded by the neighbouring mountains, it would now very soon be demolished by the fire of a battery.

In this castle are included the palaces of the sultans of Egypt, now almost buried under their own ruins. Domes subverted, gilding and pictures involved in rubbish, and columns of marble without capitals, are remaining tokens of its ancient grandeur.

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The palaces have nothing remarkable in their exterior appearance. Indeed, the pacha, who is representative of the Grand Seignior, is but a mere phantom of power, having, in no respect, a will of his own, but being entirely subject to controul.

There is a mint in Cairo, where they coin a great quantity of medins and sequins, struck with the die of Chiek Elbalad, the most powerful bey in the city, who is vested with the right of coining.

Among the curiosities of this castle is Jacob's Well, sunk in the rock 280 feet deep, and 42 feet in circumference. It has two excavations. A stair-case, with an easy ascent, is carried round. The partition which separates this stair-case from the well is part of the rock, left only six inches thick, with windows cut at intervals to give light; but as they are small, and some low, it is necessary to descend by the light of candles. There is a reservoir, and a level space, at that part of the well where it takes a new direction.

The whole of Grand Cairo is seen at one view, and, by means of its multitudinous mosques and minarets, lofty pyramids, and fruitful fields, interspersed with verdant groves, affords a most beautiful landscape. The streets are pestered with jugglers and fortune-tellers. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor. The intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing all their lives after.

As every Mussulman is under a religious injunction of making, at least once in his life, a pilgrimage to Mecca, in the grand caravan, which, in fact, is no other than an association of merchants and travellers bound to the same country, and thus united for their defence against the attacks of the wandering Arabs, we deem it proper to give an account of the same. The caravan sets out from Cairo once a year, and is one of the most splendid and numerous cavalcades in all the east. The number of those which compose the caravan seldom amounts to less than 40,000; but it is oftentimes much greater, in times of peace and plenty, when the commerce is not obstructed: for these caravans join to their devotions a considerable trade, and return home laden with the richest goods from Persia and India, which come to Gedda by the Red Sea, and are thence conveyed to Mecca; and this, joined to the richness of the presents carried there, makes it necessary that they should be attended by a sufficient guard. With this view a draft is always made of all the best troops in Egypt to escort them; at the head of which is the Emir Hadge, or prince of the pilgrims, who has the power of life and death over the whole caravan. The ceremony of his setting out on this expedition from Cairo is very magnificent: the camels are all ornamented; and the sum total belonging to the Emir Hadge amounts to 3000; but the rest is beyond computation.

Those camels are most magnificently adorned which are made choice of to carry the presents to Mecca, especially that which carries the great pavilion called Mahmel, or covering of Mahomet and Abraham's tomb, which is made in the shape of a pyramid, with a square base, all richly embroidered with gold on a green and red ground; the view of the house of Mecca being embroidered upon it, with a portico around it. He is covered with a rich carpet that comes down to his feet, so that nothing is seen of him but his head, neck, and crupper, which are richly adorned. This camel is said to be bred for that purpose; and after he has performed this office he is esteemed sacred, and never more put to any use.

Their encampments are so settled that the caravan must arrive at Mecca in 38 days; and the departure of it is fixed to the 27th day of the moon which follows their Ramadan. It is joined at Beddar, six days journey from Mecca, by the caravan from Damascus; after which they march jointly to Mecca, and are joined in the way by the caravans from other parts, who then pro-

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ceed together to pay their devotions at Mount Arafat, from whence they march on to Mecca, where the Emir Hadge puts up the new grand pavilion. The stay of the caravan is confined to 12 days, in which time a great and rich traffic is carried on between the pilgrims and their followers from all parts, and then the Emir Hadge gives his signal for departure. On their return to Cairo the greatest festivities are made, and each person is honoured with the title of hadge, or pilgrim, before his own name.

Notwithstanding the great numbers which compose these caravans, there have been instances of their being attacked, plundered, and carried into captivity by the Arabian freebooters.

The port of Boulac, the place where all the merchandize coming from Damietta and Alexandria is landed, is about a mile and a half from Grand Cairo. It contains grand baths and extensive okals. These okals are square buildings, including a large court with a portico, over which is a winding gallery. The ground floor is divided into spacious magazines, and the rooms above have neither furniture or ornaments: Here strangers live and deposit their wares. These okals may be said to be the only inns in Egypt: but all strangers must provide their own furniture and food, it being impossible to procure a dinner ready dressed on any consideration. Thousands of vessels, of various forms and sizes, may be seen riding at anchor in this port from the fronts of the houses. The opulent resort to this place to enjoy the cooling breeze from the Nile, and the delightful prospect of the variegated landscapes which its banks present.

Before we leave Grand Cairo, it may not be improper to take notice, that, in the villages about it, the inhabitants have a method of hatching chickens in ovens, which is also practised in many other parts of Egypt. As this is a matter of a very singular nature, we shall be a little particular in describing the means by which it is effected.

The season for executing this business is from January to April, when the weather is tolerably temperate. The ovens are under ground in opposite rows, with a gallery or passage between them; and they are raised one above another, with holes at top, as are likewise in the passages, which they open or stop, as they would have the heat increased or diminished. The fuel that heats them is dung and chopped straw, which makes a smothering fire. They continue to heat them gently eight or ten days together, and then bring the eggs from the lower cells, where they are laid in heaps, and spread them in the upper apartments, so as only to cover the floor singly. After this the business is to turn them every day, and keep a moderate fire in a channel that runs along the mouth of the oven; and, indeed, the art consists chiefly in giving the ovens a proper degree of heat, neither too much or too little, for in either case the labour would not succeed. Their general rule is, that the eggs be never made hotter than a man can bear them at his eye-lid. Thus they begin to hatch in about three weeks; at which time it is very entertaining to see some of the chickens just putting forth their heads, others half out of the shell, and others quite free. Thunder occasions abundance of eggs to miscarry; and at best many chickens want a claw, or have some defect that is uncommon in the natural way. Mr. Greavens tells us, that the fire in the upper ovens, when the eggs are in the lower, is thus proportioned: the first day the greatest fire, the second less, the third less again, the fourth more than the third, the fifth less, the sixth more than the fifth, the seventh less, the eighth more, the ninth none, the tenth a little in the morning. The eleventh they close all the holes with flax, &c. making no more fire, for if they should the eggs would break. Thus 7 or 8000 are hatched in a short time. It is to be observed, that the same experiment has been made, with success, in Italy, and other parts of Europe: though it must also be observed, at the same time, that the birds thus produced by art, cannot claim an equality, in point

point of perfection, with those produced in the natural way.

The Island of Rhoda, which lies between Old Cairo and Giza, and where the Nilometer stands, as before mentioned, affords a pleasing view, from the extensive fields of wheat, flax, and beans, intermingled with groves of dates, for the space of a league.

The following concise description of this island, and narrative of a circumstance that befel an authentic traveller, to whom we are indebted for several curious passages, we presume, will afford entertainment: we shall, therefore, present them in his own words.

"I walked through the island, which is one vast garden, surrounded by the waters of the Nile. Walls, breast high, protect its banks from the impetuous current. On one side Old Cairo, the water-works and pleasure-houses of the beys are seen; on the other the pleasant town of Giza. The governor, who resides here, exacts a tribute from those who visit the pyramids out of curiosity.

"Lost in agreeable meditation, I entered a grove of tamarind, orange, and sycamore trees, and enjoyed the fresh air beneath their thick foliage. A luminous ray here and there penetrated the deep shades, gilding a small part of the scene. Plants and flowers scented the air. Multitudes of doves flew from tree to tree, undisturbed at my approach. Thus abandoned to the delights of contemplation, and indulging those delicious sensations the time and place inspired, I incautiously proceeded towards the thickest part of the wood, when a terrifying voice suddenly exclaimed, "Where are you going? Stand, or you are dead." It was a slave who guarded the entrance of the grove, that no rash curiosity might disturb the females who reposed upon the verdant banks. I afterwards was given to understand, that the beys go there sometimes with their women, and that any over inquisitive stranger, who should wander there at such a time, would risk the immediate loss of his head. It appears from hence, how necessary circumspection is in a country where the least indiscretion may lead to death."

Alexandria, so called from the great conqueror of the world, is, on divers accounts, highly worthy of notice. Egypt, previous to his conquest, though happily situated to extend its commerce over Europe, Africa, and the Indies, wanted a harbour, as it did also a fortress. The hero bestowed on it these important advantages, by erecting the one, and forming the other in a complete manner. He raised Alexandria to a degree of splendor even in its infancy; for by joining it to the Nile by a canal at once navigable and useful to cultivation, it became the city of all nations, and the metropolis of commerce. The rocky bottom, which extends along the coast of Egypt, proves the Isle of Pharos to have been formed by the ruins of Alexandria. The near shore likewise confirms the truth of this observation; and the rolling of the waves continually discovers a number of stones which have inscriptions on them, and are upon good ground supposed to be part of the remains of this ancient city. Its ruins afford a testimony of its former splendor, and are defended by the same walls that once defended its industry and riches, and still present a master-piece of ancient architecture.

The Ptolemies all contributed to the magnificence of this city. Within its walls were the museum, that asylum of the learned, groves, edifices worthy of royalty, and a temple where the body of Alexander, in a golden coffin, had been deposited.

The glory of Alexandria fell, together with that of Egypt in general, in the fifteenth century, when the country was seized on by the Turks; though in its decline it still preserved an air of grandeur and magnificence which excited admiration.

Modern Alexandria, or, as it is called by the Turks, Scanderoon, is a place of small extent, but of considerable commerce, owing to its situation. It has two ports, the old and the new, the former being the resort of Turkish vessels only, the latter of European in general.

Between these ports the present city is situated. The harbour is dry; and the canal that ran into it from the lake Mareotis has disappeared. The canal of Faoud, the only one that still runs to Alexandria, is half filled up with mud and sand. The stream only flows now about the end of August, and there is scarcely sufficient time to fill the reservoirs and cisterns of the town. The lands it once made fruitful are now become deserts, and the groves and gardens about Alexandria have disappeared with the streams that watered them.

Notwithstanding this general decline, the cisterns of Alexandria, vaulted with great art, which were built under all parts of the city, and its numerous aqueducts, are almost entire, though they have remained 2000 years.

Towards the eastern part of the palace are the two obelisks commonly called Cleopatra's Needles. One is thrown down, broken, and covered with sand; the other still rests on its pedestal; each cut from one single stone, is about sixty-three feet high, and seven square at the base.

A Corinthian column, large and magnificent, standing about a quarter of a league from the south gate, particularly attracts the attention of travellers. It is majestic beyond conception, and serves as a signal for mariners at sea. Travellers, and men of literature, have made many fruitless attempts to discover to whom it was dedicated, and they have differed in their opinions. Some ascribe the dedication to Pompey, some to Vespasian, and others to Severus. It is known, however, by the name of Pompey's Pillar.

Near Cleopatra's canal are some catacombs, which consist of several apartments cut in the rocks on each side of an open gallery. The catacombs extend above a mile to the west, and there are a great number of them by the sea side. The most remarkable are those towards the farther end of the canal, being beautiful apartments cut out of a rock, with niches in many of them large enough to contain the bodies, and adorned on each side with Doric pilasters.

The inhabitants of Alexandria are composed of Turks, Copts, Greeks, and Armenians. There are likewise great numbers of Jews, most of whom are foreigners, and natives of Constantinople, Lisbon, or Leghorn. Europeans in general go under the denomination of Franks. The following droll anecdote respecting the imposition of the Turks on the Franks, is related in a letter from a person resident some years in Alexandria, to a friend in England.

"There is a large open spot in Alexandria where the Franks recreate themselves. On the north side of this place is a stand of asses, ranged in rows, with each assa driver. These are let out to ride, and the driver runs behind his beast, and, with a short stick, makes him go pretty fast. It is pleasant enough to observe the European sailors when they come on shore, and happen to stroll to this place. The drivers in an instant bring their asses in a ring round the sailors, and importune them to ride. The sailors, not understanding them, fall to cursing and swearing at being so hedged in. At length the drivers put the poor tars by force on their beasts, and drive them about half a mile and back again, and then insist on their fare.

Rosetta, called Raschid by the Arabs, is situated on the west side of the Nile, on the ancient Bolbitine branch. It is nearly a league in length, and one fourth as wide. The only remarkable public edifices are the mosques, the lofty minarets of which are built on a bold stile, and produce a picturesque effect. Most of the houses have a prospect of the Nile and the Delta, which affords great pleasure. The country, to the north, abounds with citron, orange, date, and sycamore trees, promiscuously planted, and this variety so intermixed renders the groves enchanting.

Commerce is the source of the wealth of Rosetta. The transportation of foreign merchandize to Cairo, and of the production of Egypt to Alexandria, gives employment to a great number of mariners.

Rosetta

Rosetta is a place uninterrupted by the noise of carriages. Camels are the carriers here, and nothing alters or disturbs the grave walk of the inhabitants.

This city has a manufactory of cloth. The flax of the country is long, flexible, and silky, and would make very fine linen, did they know how to work it; but the spinners are very inexpert; their thread is coarse, hard, and unequal. The cloth, when bleached in the dew, is for table linen; the rest, when dyed blue, clothes the common people.

There are here, at this day, a strange species of men, called *psylli*, or serpent-eaters. It appears from ancient history, that many of them were in Egypt in the time of Cleopatra; for Octavius Cæsar, desirous that the captive queen should grace his triumph, and chagrined to think that haughty woman would escape by death, commanded one of these *psylli* to suck the wound the asp had made. His efforts, however, were vain; the poison had pervaded the whole mass of blood, nor could the art of the *psylli* prevent her death. That these serpent-eaters still exist will appear from the following narrative, in the words of a late traveller.

"The festival of Sidi Ibrahim, or our Lord Abraham, was held at Rosetta, and drew a vast concourse of people. A Turk permitted me to see the procession from his house, where, seated at the window, I observed this novel sight with attention. The different tracts gravely marched in files, each preceded by their banners. The standard of Mahomet, borne in triumph, followed, and attracted a prodigious crowd. All were desirous to touch, kiss, or put it to their eyes; and those who obtained this favour returned satisfied. The tumult was renewed incessantly. After this came the chiefs, priests of the country, wearing leather caps in the form of a mitre, and singing, as they slowly walked, the hymns of the koran. A few paces behind them I perceived a company of men, apparently frantic, with naked arms, wild eyes, and enormous serpents in their hands, which twined round their bodies, and endeavoured to escape. These *psylli*, seizing them forcibly by the neck, avoided their bite, and, regardless of their hisses, tore them with their teeth, and eat them alive, while the blood streamed from their defiled mouths. Other *psylli* struggled with them to force away the prey: the contention was who should devour a living serpent."

Damietta is situated on the eastern shore of the Nile, nearly opposite Rosetta. Its inhabitants are numerous, and its squares, okals, or khans, as spacious as those of Boulac. The houses are pleasantly situated, and various grand mosques, with lofty minarets, adorn the city. The public baths are elegant and convenient, and produce very salutary effects. The port is filled with vessels, and a considerable trade is carried on here. The finest rice of Egypt is cultivated in the neighbouring plains; and its annual exportation is supposed to be between two and three hundred thousand pounds. There are likewise cloths, sal ammoniac, and wheat. The law prohibits the exportation of the latter, but it is evaded, and the wheat is passed as rice.

The harbour of Damietta is not convenient, for the road where vessels lie being totally exposed to every gale that rises, mariners are obliged to slip their cables, and take refuge at Cyprus, or keep the open seas. Damietta enjoys a happy temperature of climate, and abounds with the productions common to the country. Here are strangers of various nations and religions, but they are restrained in their privileges, and fearful of being in the streets after dark, on account of the insults to which they are subject from the Turkish soldiery, who have a natural antipathy to all strangers. To Europeans they have a particular aversion, seemingly occasioned by the holy war, for this city was the principal scene of action, and where Louis IX. of France was made prisoner. No persons must appear here in an European dress; and as a Christian is known by his mein, strangers dare not go out of the streets they are accustomed to frequent.

Suez is a considerable sea-port on the isthmus which bears its name, and advantageously situated for carrying on commerce with Cairo, from whence the inhabitants get all the necessaries of life. Water is very scarce here. Though it is brackish (being obliged to fetch it from a place nine miles off) they purchase it at a very dear rate. The houses, mosques, quays, magazines, and other public edifices, are composed of a most curious sort of stone, consisting of a great number of shells so closely united by nature as to be inseparable.

Many attempts were made by the Roman emperors, and kings of Egypt, to cut a channel through the isthmus of Suez, and join the two seas together, but every attempt proved ineffectual.

SECTION VII.

Towns and Villages on the River Nile.

THE village of Deir-Etiin, where there is a mosque and a Copti convent, stands to the southward of Old Cairo. The houses here are almost all built of clay, and covered with reeds.

The village of Dagjour is remarkable for containing in its neighbourhood many handsome pyramids, as also several spacious mosques.

Benisuef is situated on the western shore of the Nile: it is a kind of a capital, about 100 miles distant from Cairo.

To the north-east of this village is Mount Kobzim, at the foot of which stands the convent of St. Anthony. This convent has no door, so that the monks draw travellers up through the window by a pulley. This is a necessary precaution against the Arabs. The rules of these monks are very austere, and their abstinence rigid; for they drink wine only on some grand annual festivals. They believe they possess absolute power over demons, serpents, and wild beasts. They highly venerate the grotto of St. Anthony, an obscure retreat dug in the mountain, where this father of monastic institution lived as in a tomb, surrounded by darkness and deserts.

Not far from the convent of St. Anthony is that of St. Paul, which the Copti call the Tiger Convent, from a supposition that those animals made the tomb of that saint.

On the same side of the Nile with the village of Benisuef is another called Monfalut. It is a sort of capital, whose mosques give it a beautiful appearance; and it is the see of a Copti bishop. The adjacent country is very fertile, and abounds with a great variety of fruit trees.

The village of Siouth contains several handsome mosques, and is the rendezvous of those who go with the caravan that sets out from hence to Nubia. This village is situated about two miles from the river, in a very pleasant part of the country; and by the side of it is a large lake, which is filled from the Nile by a canal, over which there is a bridge of three high Gothic arches.

Aboutiteshea is a large village on the same side of the Nile with Siouth, and has some mosques. It is a bishop's see, and is supposed to be the Hypsele of the ancients.

Farther up the Nile, on the east side, is the village of Akmin, which is very large, and adorned with several mosques. Here are the remains of two temples, consisting of stones 20 feet long, and 10 broad, all of which are painted, and full of hieroglyphics. On one stone there is a Greek inscription of four lines, of which the first and last are almost totally, and the others partly, defaced. The Copti have a convent here, and there is also an hospital belonging to the Congregation de Propaganda.

Girge, or Tshirsche, which is the residence of the bey, is about a quarter of a mile from the river, and tolerably large, being at least two miles in circumference: the houses are in general spacious, and chiefly built of hard brick; and there are several handsome mosques belonging to the Turks.

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The village of Gau is situated on the eastern side of the Nile, and was once very large, but a considerable part of it has been washed away by the overflowings of that river.

About seven miles from Gau, on the same side of the Nile, is the village of Eridy, the residence of a chieftain of the same name.

In the mountains, near the village of Eridy, are 10 or 12 sepulchral caverns. There are also many heaps of ruins, which, according to the report of the Copti, are the remains of the ancient town of Irgy.

Dandera is a small village, but very pleasantly situated, being encompassed by continued rows of trees, which produce all the various fruits to be met with in Egypt.

Nagadi is a large town, and, among other edifices, contains several spacious mosques; and the Copti have a bishop who constantly resides here.

Carnac is a name given to a vast extent of country to the east of the Nile, where are seen, in various places, some very considerable ruins of buildings that were once spacious and magnificent.

Efnay is higher up the river, and is a large place, adorned with a very handsome mosque. It is the residence of an Arab chieftain, and is situated where the ancient Latopolis stood; some remains of which are still to be seen.

Edfu, or Etfou, is the ancient Apollinopolis, and is situated on the western side of the Nile. Here is a fine monument of antiquity, well preserved, which has been long converted into a citadel, and now occupied by the Turks.

Elfouan is also situated on the western side of the Nile, and is the ancient Seyne, which was under the tropic of Cancer. It is at this place where the first cataract of the Nile begins, above which is the Island Giesfret Ell Heiff, the Philæ of the ancients, which is a desert, and quite covered with rocks of granite. The borders of this island are cut in the form of a wall on the rock; and within are abundance of colonades, buildings, and other magnificent antiquities.

At Deboude are the ruins of several grand edifices; as also at Hindau, Shahdaeb, and Tessa, where Egypt ends, and Nubia begins. From hence up to Derri are many small villages, in some of which are to be seen several ruins of antiquity.

Derri is situated on the eastern shore of the Nile, near the place where the river begins to direct its course towards the west. It is inhabited by a race of people called Barbarins, who are a poor miserable tribe, and live chiefly by plunder. The slope of the shore of the Nile here is covered in many places with lupines and radishes, the seed of which serves for the purpose of making oil.

The people of Derri have frequent occasion to cross the Nile, in order to go to Effouan, but as they have not the convenience of canoes, they supply that deficiency by various projects, the most distinguished of which, as described by a modern writer, are as follow: "Two men sit upon a truss of straw, while a cow goes before swimming; one of them hold in one hand the tail of the cow, and with the other directs a cord fastened to the horns of the animal. The other man, who is behind, steers with a little oar, by means of which he keeps a balance at the same time." Another way is to cross the river with camels loaded, in this manner: "A man swims before, holding the bridle of the first camel in his mouth; the second camel is fastened to the tail of the first, and the third to the tail of the second: another man, sitting on a truss of straw, brings up the rear, and takes care that the second and third camels follow in a row." A third way is this: "They put themselves astride upon a great piece of wood, after having placed their cloaths over their heads in form of a turban. They also fasten to it their assagaye, or dart: they afterwards make use of their arms as oars; and by this means they cross the river without much difficulty, or any danger from the crocodiles."

SECTION VIII.

Persons, Dress, Dispositions, Government of Families, Mode of Living, Female Subordination, Diversions, Diseases, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, &c. of the Egyptians.

EGYPT is inhabited by various nations; but the Copts, or Copti, are the real Egyptians, being descended from the original inhabitants of the country. They are an ill favoured, bad shaped, slovenly, and effeminate people. Their common dress is a blue shirt, which the men gird about them for convenience when they labour. The superior class of women wear a piece of gauze over their faces, and a large black veil to cover their bodies. The veil of the others is part of the shirt, with window holes cut in it to see through. Some of their bracelets are made of gold finely jointed, others of silver or brass wire, and a common sort are manufactured of plain iron. The children in general go naked.

In the summer time the men wear a kind of loose coat over a short waistcoat, from which falls a pair of breeches, somewhat like trowsers. They have a turban on their heads, and red slippers on their feet.

The women wear a high crowned cap, and loose open jacket, under which is a kind of waistcoat, with a double row of buttons. They have a petticoat which falls down to the ankles, and wear sandals and clogs on the feet.

The Egyptians are naturally indolent and effeminate, and all their enjoyment centers in luxurious indulgence. Thus inactive, the sofa is the principal piece of furniture in an apartment. Their gardens have charming harbours and convenient seats, but not a single walk.

Each family forms a state, of which the father is king or governor. The members of it, attached to him by the ties of blood, acknowledge and submit to his power. Before his tribunal their disputes are brought, and his sentence terminating them, restores peace and order. The children are educated in the women's apartment, and do not come into the hall, especially when strangers are there. A numerous posterity often resides under the same roof. The children and grandchildren come and pay their common father a daily tribute of veneration and love. The pleasure of being loved and respected in proportion as age increases, makes him forget he grows old. He is cheerful, jocular, and happy, in the bosom of his family. When he dies they mourn his loss, and shew every token of respect for his memory.

When visitors come the master receives them without many compliments, but in an endearing manner. His equals are seated beside him with their legs crossed. His inferiors kneel, and sit upon their heels. People of distinction are placed on a raised sofa, whence they overlook the company.

When every person is placed, the slaves bring pipes and coffee, and set the perfume brazier in the middle of the chamber, the air of which is impregnated with its odours, and afterwards present sweetmeats and sherbet; for the Egyptians hold wine in abhorrence. When the visit is almost ended, a slave, bearing a silver plate, in which precious essences are burning, goes round the company; each in turn perfumes the beard, and afterwards sprinkles rose-water on the head and hands. This is the last ceremony, and the guests are then permitted to retire.

About noon the table is prepared, and the viands brought in a large tray of tinned copper; and if there is not great variety, there is great plenty. In the center is a pile of rice, cooked with poultry, and highly seasoned with spice and saffron. Round this are hashed meats, pigeons, stuffed cucumbers, delicious melons, and fruits. The roast meats are cut small, larded over with the fat of the animal, seasoned with salt, spitted, and done on the coals. The guests are seated on a carpet

carpet round the table. A slave brings water in one hand, and a basin in the other, to wash. This is an indispensable ceremony, where each person puts his hand in the dish, and where the use of forks is unknown. It is repeated when the meal is ended.

After dinner the Egyptians retire to the haaram, where they slumber some hours amidst their wives and children. A commodious and agreeable place of repose is luxury to them. The poor, having neither sofa or haaram, lie down on the mat on which they have dined.

In the evening it is customary to go on the water, or breathe the fresh air on the banks of the Nile, beneath the orange and sycamore shades. About an hour after sun-set supper is served, consisting of rice, poultry, vegetables, and fruits, which are very salutary during the heats. They are moderate in their eating.

Such is the manner in which the Egyptians usually live. Their days are passed in repeating the same thing, without a wish or thought beyond.

The Egyptian women are bowed down by the fetters of slavery, condemned to servitude, and have not the least influence in public affairs. Their empire is confined within the walls of the haaram, and the circle of their lives extends not beyond their own family and domestic duties. Their main object is to educate their children. Their most fervent wish is a numerous offspring, as public respect, and the love of their husbands, are annexed to fruitfulness. Mothers in general suckle their children, according to the law of nature, as well as that of Mahomet.

Every domestic concern, indeed, is the department of the women. They superintend their household affairs, and prepare their own food, and that of their husbands.

The women, according to the custom of the east, do not associate with the men, not even at table, where the union of sexes produces mirth and wit, and renders the fare more sweet. When any of the great are disposed to dine with one of their wives, she has due notice of it, prepares the apartment, perfumes it with precious essences, procures the most delicate viands, and receives her lord with the utmost attention and respect.

Among the common people the women usually stand or sit in one corner of the room while the husband dines, often hold the basin for him to wash, and serve him at table. Though thus employed, the Egyptian women have much leisure, which they spend among their slaves, embroidering sashes, making veils, tracing designs to decorate their sophas, and spinning. Once or twice a week they are permitted to go to the bath, and receive female relations and friends. To bewail the dead is a duty they are permitted to perform.

The Egyptian women receive each others visits very affectionately, and display, upon those occasions, both elegance and hospitality.

When a visitor is in the haaram the husband must not enter; it is the asylum of hospitality which cannot be violated. The Turkish women go guarded by their eunuchs upon the water, and enjoy the charming prospects upon the banks of the Nile.

In this manner the Egyptian women, in general, pass their lives. Their duties are to educate their children, superintend the concerns of their household, and live retired with their family. Their pleasures are to visit, give entertainments, go upon the water, and to the baths. To these may be added their attention to the Almai, a class of females we shall now describe.

These women obtain the title of Almai, or learned, from being more carefully educated than others of their sex. To be admitted into their class, the requisites are a fine voice, eloquence, and a genius for poetry. They have a fund of songs and tales, are present at all festivals, and the chief ornament of banquets. Having sung in a raised orchestra during the feast, they descend and form dances, which in no respect resemble ours, but are a kind of pantomimes, displaying the common

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incidents of life. Love is their usual subject. Their action and countenances are very significant, but they tend to convey obscene ideas.

As the minds of these women are cultivated, their conversation agreeable, their language pure, and their poetry attractive, they are admitted into all haarams, to instruct the women in those accomplishments that are most pleasing. In fine, their manner of recitation and deportment is so captivating, that the Turks, dull as they are, and averse to the arts, pass whole nights in attending to their performances.

The bagnios of Cairo are elegantly constructed, the apartments are furnished with every accommodation, and the attendants equally expert and obsequious. These baths are recommended as highly salutary, preventing or exterminating rheumatisms, catarrhs, and those diseases of the skin which are occasioned by the want of perspiration.

The women are passionately fond of the baths, whether they go at least once a week, taking with them slaves accustomed to the office. The days of bathing are festive days among the Egyptian women: they deck themselves magnificently, and, under the long veil and mantle which hide them from the public eye, wear the richest stuffs. It is contrary to the laws of this country for men to presume to go into a bagnio on the day that the women bathe, and, to prevent mistakes, a signal is hung up, and a man placed at the door-way. The Georgian and Circassian women, whom the Turks purchase for their wives, are elegantly attired; and though their luxury is hidden from the public, it surpasses that of European women in their own houses.

The inhabitants of this country are subject to various diseases from the natural effects of the climate. Cairo is commonly visited by the plague once in three or four years, when it rages with incredible violence. Sore eyes is a general complaint, and blindness so common, that Egypt has been proverbially stiled *The land of blindness*. Scorbutic and leprous disorders are likewise very prevalent here; and many persons are carried off by a distemper called Dem-al-Muyah, resembling the apoplexy in its symptoms.

With respect to the marriages of the Egyptians, they are not, as in Europe, permanent contracts. If a man is desirous of parting from his wife he goes before the judge, declares in his presence he puts her from him, and, when the four months probation, enjoined by the law, are expired, he returns the wealth she brought, and the portion stipulated in the marriage contract. If they have children, the husband retains the boys, and the wife takes away the girls, after which they become free, and may marry elsewhere. The wife having recourse to the law, and proving real cause of complaint, may break the chain; but in this case she loses her portion, and the wealth she brought to the house of her husband, though she recovers her liberty.

Matches are made for the young men by the female relations. They meet most of the maidens of the city at the bath, whom they perfectly describe, and the choice being made, the alliance is mentioned to the father of the female, the portion specified, and, if he consents, they make him presents. The parties agreed, the female relations and friends of the virgin prepare her for the celebration of the nuptials, and the day is passed in feasting, dancing, and singing songs adapted to the occasion.

The following day the same persons go to the house of the bride, tear her, as it were, violently away from the arms of her afflicted mother, and triumphantly conduct her to the house of the bridegroom. The procession usually begins in the evening; dancers go before her; numerous slaves display the effects destined to her use; troops of dancing girls keep time with their instruments; matrons, richly clothed, walk with a grave pace; and the young bride appears under a magnificent canopy, borne by four slaves, sustained by her mother and sisters, and entirely covered by a veil, embroidered with gold, pearls, and diamonds. A long

file of flambeaux illumine the procession; and the Almai, in chorus, occasionally sing verses in praise of the bride and bridegroom.

When they arrive at the house of the bride, the women and men repair to their separate apartments, those of the former being so contrived that they can see what passes in the hall where the men are assembled. The Almai descend and display their agility and address in dances and pantomimical representations suitable to the occasion. This ended, they chaunt, in chorus, the epithalamium (or marriage poem) extolling the allurements of the bride, and the bliss of that mortal who shall enjoy so many charms. During the ceremony she several times passes before the bridegroom, to display her wealth and elegance. The guests having retired, the husband enters the nuptial chamber, the veil is removed, and, for the first time, he beholds his wife.

These are the laws and ceremonies of marriage observed among the Egyptians of rank. The inferior classes observe the same, but the paraphernalia are not so pompous. Nearly the same ceremonies are observed among the Copts; but they have a custom of betrothing young girls only six or seven years old, which is done by putting a ring on the finger. Permission is often obtained for her friends to educate her till she arrives at years of discretion.

We have already observed that to bewail the dead is a duty allowed the women to perform. Distracted mothers are often seen round Grand Cairo reciting funeral hymns over the tombs they had strewed with odoriferous plants. This custom was not unknown to the Romans, who had their funeral urns strewed with cypress.

Besides the Copts, Egypt is inhabited by Turks, Arabs, Moors, Greeks, Jews, and Franks. The Arabs are a swarthy people, and live in tents. The Turks retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, with their peculiar mode of dress, to distinguish them from the rest of the inhabitants. The Jews wear blue slippers, the foreign Christians yellow, and the natives red.

Among the inhabitants of Egypt there are two sorts of a peculiar kind. The first are called the Established Bedouins, and the latter the Wandering Bedouins. The former live in villages, and are to be considered as peasants of the country: the latter occupy tents, and shift their habitations for the convenience of pasture. They are represented in general as a people free from care and strife, averse to worldly pomp and avarice, and happy in those enjoyments that result from pure nature.

From Egypt came originally that vagrant race called Gypsies, which dispersed themselves throughout Europe and Asia. Being banished Egypt, where the occult science, or black art, as it was called, was supposed to have arrived to great perfection, they found no difficulty to maintain themselves by pretending to tell fortunes and future events, and thereby gaining on the minds of the credulous of different nations. In our country this race is nearly extinct.

SECTION IX.

State of the Commerce of Egypt. Revenues.

EGYPT, in her declined state, without arts, shipping, or mariners expert in navigation, cannot rival the Europeans in point of commerce. Their greatest effort is an annual voyage to Mocha, where their vessels are laden with coffee of Yemen, the muslins and cloths of Bengal, the perfumes of Arabia, and the pearls of the isles of Beharim. Their profits upon the article of coffee are great, amounting to half a million sterling. Most of it is sent to Constantinople, Greece, and the coast of Syria, and the rest they consume themselves.

Notwithstanding her state of declension, Egypt contains within herself the true source of wealth. The corn with which she supplies Arabia, Syria, and a part of the Archipelago; the rice sent over the Mediterra-

nean; the sal-ammoniac sent to divers parts of Europe; the excellent flax, esteemed by the Italians; and the blue cloth which clothes, in part, the neighbouring nations; these are objects which must render the balance of trade favourable to the Egyptians.

The Abyssinians bring them gold dust, elephants teeth, and other valuable articles, which they exchange for their productions. The cloaths, lead, arms, &c. brought by European vessels, do not equal what they receive, so that the balance is paid in Turkish piastres. The copper kitchen furniture and furs which the Turks send to Alexandria, are below the amount of corn, rice, lentils, coffee, and perfumes, they take back, most of which are paid for in ready money.

Except Mocha and Mecca, where the Egyptians annually leave a great part of their sequins, all who trade with them bring them silver and gold.

In many of the villages on the banks of the Nile the inhabitants are chiefly employed in making sal-ammoniac. This salt is procured from the soot which arises from the burnt dung of animals that feed only on vegetables: but the dung of these animals is only fit to be burnt for that purpose during the first four months of the year, when they feed on fresh spring grass, which, in Egypt, is a kind of trefoil or clover; for when they feed only on dry meat it will not do. The dung of oxen, buffalos, sheep, goats, horses, and asses, at the proper time, is as fit as the dung of camels for this purpose. The soot arising from the burnt dung is put into glass vessels, and these vessels into an oven or kiln, which is heated by degrees, and at last with a very strong fire for three successive nights and days; after which the smoke first shews itself, and, in a short time, the salt appears, adhering to the glasses, and, by degrees, covers the whole opening. The glasses being broken, the salt is taken out in the same state and form in which it is sent to Europe.

Pebbles are here finely polished for snuff-boxes, handles for knives, &c. They are done by a wheel, like jewellery work, and are not to be rivalled any where. At Cairo red leather is made, and a better sort is prepared at Alexandria; yet the latter is far inferior to that which is made in Morocco.

The revenues of Egypt, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of its government, are very inconsiderable. It is said that they amount to a million sterling, but that two thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

SECTION X.

Government, Religion, and Language of the Egyptians.

THE government of Egypt may be said to be constituted of two parts, monarchical and republican. The monarchical part is executed by a pacha, appointed by the Grand Seignior as his viceroy. The republican by the Mamalukes, or Sangiaks. The appellation of Mamaluke is bestowed on children who, carried off by merchants or banditti from Georgia, Circassia, Natcha, and the various provinces of the Ottoman empire, are afterwards sold in Constantinople and Cairo. The grandees of Egypt, who have a similar origin, bury them up in their houses, and destine them to succeed to their dignities. These foreigners, at present, can alone enjoy the title of Bey, and fill the offices of state. They have the advantage of a liberal education, are taught the martial exercises, and trained up for the highest departments in the army or the state.

The sovereignty of the pacha is merely nominal; the beys, or sangiaks, at the head of provinces and armies, in reality enjoy all the power. Twenty-four of these compose a divan. The head of them is called the chief-bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pacha. Each of these sangiaks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power. The greater part of them reside at Cairo. If the pacha appointed by the Grand Seignior acts in opposition to the

sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post. They have an extensive grant of privileges dated in the year 1517, in which the Sultan Selim, having conquered Egypt, and overthrown the Circassian Mamalukes, caused their head, Thomam Bey, to be hanged at one of the gates of Cairo. Disgusted at this, they only waited the departure of the Turks to resume their arms, and Selim perceiving his error, in order to gain the good will of the Mamalukes, granted them very peculiar privileges, as specified in a treaty signed by him for that purpose. So that by these means the Egyptian government partook of monarchy and aristocracy.

With respect to their military force, two of the corps serve on foot, viz. the janissaries and Arabs, and the rest are horsemen under different titles. The janissaries are supposed to form a body of about 12,000, the Arabs about 8000, and the horse about 20,000; so that the whole number amounts to about 40,000.

For the maintenance of the civil government of Egypt the divan is held three times a week at the pacha's palace at Cairo. Punishments are in proportion to the offences committed. Murder is punished with death, but inferior crimes with the bastinado or whipping. Bakers, for making their bread deficient in weight, are sometimes put into their own ovens when hot, and there suffered to perish; and butchers, for selling stinking meat, have one of their ears nailed to their shop door, with a piece of the flesh in a wire through the nose. In this situation they are obliged to continue four hours.

The Jews under this government are hated, despised, and oppressed, so that they are dwindled into a very inconsiderable number, except at Cairo, and reduced to the lowest poverty. The inhabitants of the upper parts of the kingdom are not only oppressed by their rapacious governors, but exposed to the ravages of the Arabian chiefs, who take all opportunities of plundering the villagers, by way of reprisal for the hardships they suffer from petty tyrants. From these instances of tyranny, the government of Egypt may be said to be equally oppressive with that under the arbitrary sway of the most despotic prince.

With respect to religion, the ancient Egyptians were the grossest idolaters, and are said to have been the first who erected idolatrous altars, images, and temples. They had a great number of deities of different species, ranks, and orders. The celestial deities were Jupiter, the all vivifying power; Vulcan, or fire; Ceres, or the earth; Oceanus (by which they meant their Nile) or moisture; and Neith Minerva, or the air. Their terrestrial deities, some of which bore the same names with the celestial, were the Sun; Cronus, or Saturn; Rhea; Jupiter, or Ammon; Juno; Vesta; Hermes, or Mercury, &c. &c.

Besides these, the Egyptians worshipped a number of animals, as the ox, the dog, the wolf, the hawk, the crocodile, the ibis, &c. but that which was held most sacred was the bull, by which they represented Osiris. It also appears, from some relics of ancient poetry, that they paid religious honours to trees and roots.

As to the modern state of religion in Egypt, the Turks, Moors, and Arabs, are Mahometans. The two latter are zealous devotees, and perform the several functions with great precision. They have among them a set of miscreants called *santos*, who are most insolent hypocrites, intruding themselves, upon pretence of superior holiness, into the best houses without the least ceremony, and it would be dangerous to turn them out. The superiors in religious matters are the Mufti, who is the principal, and the doctors of the law; these are judges in all causes of a spiritual nature.

It appears from the most ancient and authentic records, that Christianity was first planted in Egypt by St. Mark. The Copts still profess themselves Christians according to the tenets of the Greek church, being under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria.

The Coptic, which was the original language of Egypt, was succeeded by the Greek, upon the con-

quest of Alexander the Great, and continued in use till the Arabs took possession of the country. Since that period the Arabic has been the current language; but the Coptic and modern Greek still continue to be spoken.

SECTION XI.

HISTORY OF EGYPT.

IT is generally agreed by writers, that Egypt has been a very long a celebrated kingdom. The first king that can be mentioned with authority, was Mizraim, the son of Ham, who reigned in the year of the world 1816. A number of kings filled the Egyptian throne in due succession; but little or nothing is recorded concerning them till the year of the world 2427, when Namases Miamum, one of the Pharaohs of the sacred writings, reigned over the country, and was particularly oppressive to the Israelites. This prince was succeeded by his son Amerophis, who was the Pharaoh under whose reign the Israelites departed out of Egypt, and who was himself drowned in the Red Sea.

Mieris, or Myris, was the prince in whose reign was dug the famous lake that goes by his name. Sesostris, his successor, who began his reign in the year of the world 2513, was one of the greatest heroes of antiquity, and renowned for the extent of his conquests. He divided Egypt into nomes or provinces, raised a formidable military and naval armament, entered the Red Sea, subdued the coasts, conquered the islands, and then turning back, proceeded with equal success to India. He carried his victorious arms throughout Asia, and extended his empire from the Ganges to the Danube. After a victorious reign of 33 years, he left his kingdom, on his demise, to his son Pheron, who did not succeed to his father's glories, though he did to his territories. His only singular transaction was the building two magnificent obelisks, each 100 cubits in height, and eight in breadth.

There is no further authentic history of Egypt till the reign of Porteus, or Cates, in the year of the world 2800. At that time Paris, the Trojan, was driven by a storm from the Ægean to the Egyptian Seas, which compelled him to put into the port of Tarichæa, situated at one of the mouths of the Nile. Thonis, a tributary king, and governor of that part, seized his person, secured his ships, and sent Paris himself to Porteus at Memphis. The king understanding that he had stolen Helen, reproached him with his perfidy; and then seizing all the riches which he had brought with him from Greece together, in order to restore both to the injured Menelaus, he commanded Paris and his attendants to quit his territories in three days, under pain of being treated as enemies.

Of the eight kings which followed Porteus nothing authentic is recorded, but the immense wealth of his immediate successor, Rhemphis, till the reign of Nilius, from whence the Nile took that name, as he had exerted his utmost endeavours to render that river as universally serviceable as possible.

The next memorable event was in the reign of Sethon, when Sennacherib, king of Assyria, invaded Egypt, and committed great depredations; till his whole army was at length destroyed.

Sethon was succeeded by Tharaca, on whose demise the Egyptians divided their whole country into twelve districts, and elected a king to reign over each division. This government of twelve kings, however, lasted only fifteen years; for one of the kings, named Psammaticus, who ruled near the sea coast, having grown opulent by commerce, and contracted several alliances with foreign powers, at length became so formidable, that he conquered the other eleven kings, and reduced the whole country beneath his sway. This prince reigned solely 54 years, 29 of which he spent in the siege of Azotus, in Syria, before he could reduce that great city. This is the longest siege commemorated in history.

Necus

Necus succeeded his father Psammaticus in the year of the world 3388, and 616 years before Christ. This monarch is called, in scripture, Pharaoh Necho. He began a canal of communication between the Nile and the Red Sea, which Darius, the Persian, afterwards finished. He built a fleet of galleys in the North Sea, and another in the Arabian Gulf, at the mouth of the Red Sea; after which he got some of the most expert seamen in the Phœnician service, and sent them out by the Red Sea, through the Straits of Babelmandel, to discover the coasts of Africa, where, in three years time, they sailed round the continent of Africa, passed the Straits of Gibraltar, and returned home by the way of the Mediterranean Sea. Herodotus says, that this king fought a battle against the Syrians in the plains of Magdolis, where he obtained the victory, and took the great city of Cadytis. Josephus says, that Necus made war upon the Medes and Babylonians, who had dissolved the Assyrian empire, and became so formidable thereupon, as raised the jealousy of all their neighbours; and therefore, to put a stop to their growing greatness, Necus marched with a great army towards the Euphrates, to make war upon them, in the 31st year of Josiah, king of Judah. But the scripture expressly says, "Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, went up against the king of Assyria to the river Euphrates, and king Josiah went against him, and he slew him at Megiddo." This valley of Megiddo in the scripture is the same as the plains of Magdolis in Herodotus; and the whole is related thus by Dean Prideaux. "On Necus's taking his way through Judea, Josiah resolved to impede his march, and posted himself in the valley of Megiddo, to stop his passage; whereupon Necus sent ambassadors to him, to let him know that he had no design upon him, that the war he was engaged in was against others, and therefore advised him not to meddle with him, lest it should turn to his own hurt. But Josiah not hearkening thereto, it came to a battle between them, wherein Josiah was not only overthrown, but also unfortunately received a wound, of which, on his return to Jerusalem, he died." Necus, animated by this victory, continued his march, and advanced towards the Euphrates, where he defeated the Babylonians, and took Charchemish, a great city in those parts, where he left a good garrison, and, after three months, returned again towards Egypt: but hearing, in his way, that Jehoahaz, the son of Josiah, had taken upon him to be king of Judah without his consent, he sent for him to Riblah, in Syria, and, on his arrival, caused him to be put in chains, and sent him prisoner into Egypt, where he died. Necus then proceeding on his way came to Jerusalem, where he made Jehoiakim, another of the sons of Josiah, king instead of his brother, and put the land to an annual tribute of 100 talents of silver, and a talent of gold; after which he returned with great triumph into his own kingdom.

Necus died after a reign of sixteen years, and was succeeded by his son Psammis, who reigned only six years, and left the kingdom to his son Apries.

Apries, in the sacred writings, is called Pharaoh Hophra. He reigned with great prosperity, took Sidon, and reduced all Phœnicia and Palestine; after which he concluded an alliance with Zedekiah, king of Judah, declared himself the protector of Israel, and promised to deliver it from the tyranny of Nebuchadnezzar, who soon after destroyed Jerusalem, and carried away Zedekiah captive to Babylon. Soon after the judgements decreed by the prophets of God against Apries began to operate, for that prince having sent an army against the Cyrenians, it was defeated, and the greatest part of the men slain. But this overthrow was not the only misfortune, for the Egyptians conceived, by the imprudent conduct of Apries in the whole affair, that he had intended this army should perish. Fearing, therefore, that he should devote more of them to destruction, they revolted in great numbers, and put him to defiance. In this dilemma Apries dispatched Amasis, an officer of his court, to appease the insurgents, and

bring them back to a sense of their duty. But while Amasis was speaking to them, they put on his head the ensigns of royalty, and declared him their king. Amasis accepted the dignity, and joined the revolvers, which so enraged Apries, that he sent Paterbemis, another of his officers, to apprehend Amasis. Paterbemis not being able to effect the business, on his return had his ears and nose cut off by the king's orders. The wrong and indignity offered to a person of his character and worth so enraged the rest of the Egyptians, that the revolt became almost general; whereupon Apries was forced to fly, and made his escape into the Upper Egypt, where he maintained himself for some years, while Amasis held all the rest. The king of Babylon took advantage of these intestine divisions, and subdued Egypt from Migdol to Seyne; that is, from one end of the kingdom to the other. He made a miserable ravage and devaluation wherever he came, killed a great number of the inhabitants, and made such dreadful havoc in the country, that the damage could not be repaired in forty years. Nebuchadnezzar having loaded his army with spoils, and conquered the whole kingdom, came to an accommodation with Amasis, whom he left as viceroy, and returned to Babylon.

Nebuchadnezzar having left Egypt, Apries forsook his hiding places, and hiring an army of Carians, Ionians, &c. marched against Amasis, and gave him battle near the city of Memphis. Being vanquished, however, and taken prisoner, he was carried to the city of Sais, and there strangled in his own palace: whereby the prophecies of Ezekiel and Jeremiah were fulfilled.

Amasis, who became sole monarch of Egypt in the year of the world 3435, and 569 before Christ, was a native of Siph, in the province of Sais: he was a worthy king, and an excellent legislator. Egypt, in his time, was happy in the fecundity of the Nile, and is said to have contained some thousand populous cities, towns, and villages. To maintain good order in the midst of such a multitude, Amasis made a law, whereby every Egyptian was obliged to inform the governor of the province once a year by what means he maintained himself; the omission of giving such information being punished with death.

Among other public works, he built an admirable portico before the temple of Minerva at Sais, and erected a colossus before the temple of Vulcan at Memphis. This colossus lay with its face upwards, was 75 feet in length, and had beside it two other smaller statues cut out of the same stone. He likewise built the spacious temple of Isis at Memphis, which was a structure of astonishing magnificence.

In the reign of this king, Cambyfes, king of Persia, conceived the design of invading Egypt, but when he arrived on the borders of that kingdom, he received information of the death of Amasis, who departed this life after a happy reign, which lasted 44 years. His body was embalmed, and then interred in a sepulchre which he had some years before erected for himself.

Psammenitus, the son of Amasis, succeeded his father, in the year of the world 3479, and 525 years before Christ. This prince had a short and calamitous reign; for Cambyfes, still pursuing his design of conquering Egypt, the Persians and Egyptians came to an engagement, when the latter were defeated, great numbers slain, and Psammenitus himself taken prisoner. Cambyfes treated the captive king in a most ignominious manner: he made his daughter a slave, ordered his son to be executed as a common malefactor, and at length put Psammenitus himself to death.

Having received the submission of all Egypt, Cambyfes proceeded to Sais, and, with an unmanly degree of resentment, ordered the body of Amasis to be taken out of his sepulchre and burnt.

The Egyptians were treated with all the insolence of conquest, and reduced to the very lowest degree of submission. Their royal line was extinct, their religion trampled on, their priests persecuted, and themselves despised.

despised and oppressed. And thus the kingdom, after having continued in a regal succession above 1600 years, fell a prey to Cambyfes, one of the most outrageous and violent princes that ever reigned.

The succession of the Egyptian kings here ends, and from this period the history of this nation becomes blended with that of the Persians and Greeks, till the death of Alexander the Great, and after that æra it is intermixed with the history of other nations. It has been subject, successively, to the Greeks, Romans, Saracens, Mamalukes, and last to the Turks. This period, viz. the year of the world 3480, and before Christ 524, is deemed the second period of the Egyptian history. But to pursue the history progressively. After the conquest of Egypt by Cambyfes, it continued a province of Persia, till the destruction of that empire by Alexander the Great, who having vanquished Darius, it fell under the dominion of that mighty conqueror, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria, then the emporium of the rich merchandize of the Indies.

The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being divided amongst his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the lot of Ptolemy, when it became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before the Christian æra. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, long retained the name of Ptolemy, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife of Ptolemy Dionysius, ascended the throne,

The first monarch of the Macedonian race, who reigned in Egypt after the death of Alexander the Great, was called Ptolemy Soter. The name of Soter, or Saviour, was given him by the Rhodians, in consideration of his friendly offices towards them while their metropolis was besieged by Demetrius, the son of Antigonus. This prince chose Alexandria as his residence, and granted privileges to those who settled there, by which means that city became very populous and wealthy. He was a valiant prince, and bravely defended his kingdom from repeated attacks.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, son and successor of Ptolemy Soter, is deservedly celebrated for liberal and pious actions. He devoted his attention to the improvement of the noble Alexandrian library, and spared neither pains or expence to procure the most valuable and curious books from various nations. He also caused, at an immense expence, the Old Testament to be translated from the Hebrew into Greek, which arduous task having been completed in seventy-two days, by seventy-two elders, is commonly called "The Septuagint." It may not be improper to observe, that the most ancient and best manuscript of the Septuagint Version extant, is the Alexandrian copy which is now in the king's library at St. James's, written all in capital letters, without the distinctions of chapter, verses, or words. It was presented to King Charles I. by Cyrilus Lucaris, the patriarch of Constantinople, who had been patriarch of Alexandria.

About this time the Romans began to flourish and obtain a name among foreign nations; whereupon Ptolemy, desiring to enter into an alliance with them, sent an embassy for that purpose to Rome. The Romans received them with the greatest cordiality, and returned the compliment by sending ambassadors to Egypt, who were treated with the most profound respect, and presented, at their departure, with magnificent gifts.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, after his death, left behind him the character of a wise, magnanimous, and learned prince, at once endeavouring to promote commerce, and encourage literature, in his kingdom, by which he augmented the fortunes, and improved the minds, of his subjects. To perpetuate a taste for literature in his dominions, he erected public schools and academies at Alexandria, where they long flourished in great reputation. His intercourse with learned men, and his care

to dignify the sciences, may be considered as the source of those measures he pursued to make commerce flourish in his dominions.

Ptolemy III. surnamed Energetes, or the Benefactor, succeeded his father in the 246th year before Christ. In the commencement of his reign he made preparations to wage war against Antiochus Teos, king of Syria, who had divorced his sister Berenice. In the meantime Antiochus was poisoned by his other wife, Laodice; and his son began his reign by putting Berenice and her son to death.

To revenge the death of his sister, Ptolemy raised a considerable armament, soon made himself master of Syria and Cilicia, and having taken Laodice he put her to death; then passing the Euphrates, he subdued all the country from thence to the Tigris. Having provided for the protection of the places he subjugated, he returned to Egypt, carrying with him immense riches. An accommodation at length taking place between him and his enemies, he applied himself to enlarging his dominions southward, which having effected, he was poisoned by his wife, after he had reigned 25 years.

This profligate prince was ironically called Philopater, a word signifying, *Lover of his Father*; whereas his murdering him being universally known, he received that appellation by way of derision.

He was successful in a war he waged with Antiochus, the lineal king of Syria, who attempted the recovery of his dominions, which had been annexed to the Egyptian territories, and having at length concluded a peace with that prince, he gave himself up wholly to libertinism, and died a martyr to intemperance in the 37th year of his age, and 17th of his reign.

Ptolemy Philopater being succeeded by his son Ptolemy Epiphanes, or the Illustrious, at the age of five years, Philip, king of Macedon, and Antiochus, king of Syria, thinking to avail themselves of his infant state, entered into a league to divide his dominions between them. The latter accordingly marched into Syria and Palestine, both of which submitted to him without opposition.

In this critical situation the Egyptians sent an embassy to Rome, praying protection, offering the Romans the guardianship of their king, and regency of the kingdom, during his minority. The Romans, desirous of extending their fame, accepted the offer, and immediately dispatched ambassadors to the two kings, desiring them to desist from invading the dominions of the infant prince, otherwise they would make war upon them for his protection. At this time the Egyptians had raised an army, and sent a general, named Scopas, to attempt the recovery of the places which had submitted to Antiochus, but were defeated with great loss.

Antiochus soon after sent an embassy to Alexandria, with proposals of marriage between Cleopatra, his daughter, and king Ptolemy, to be consummated as soon as the parties should be of a proper age, promising restoration of the provinces he had conquered on the day of nuptials, by way of dowry with the young prince.

The Egyptians accepting the proposals, the young king, having attained to the age of fourteen years, and being, according to the custom of the country, declared to be out of his minority, as well as enthroned with the usual pomp, was married to Cleopatra. Antiochus was soon after killed in the province of Elimaïs, where he had plundered a temple dedicated to one of their deities.

The following year Cleopatra had a son, who succeeded his father on the throne by the name of Ptolemy Philometer. She had also another son, and a daughter called after her own name. The king having, contrary to the maxims of policy, justice, and humanity, taken the life of Aristomenes, a most loyal subject, and faithful counsellor, the remainder of his reign was one continued scene of disorder and confusion, till he was at length poisoned by some of his attendants, in the 29th year of his age, and 24th of his accession to the throne.

Ptolemy Philometer being but six years old when he succeeded to the sovereignty, Cleopatra was declared regent, and governed well till her death, which happened only one year before the expiration of the king's minority.

The regency appointed after her death, demanding of Antiochus Epiphanes, son of Antiochus the Great, the restitution of the provinces, according to the promise of his father, and that prince refusing compliance, a war ensued between Syria and Egypt.

Preparations were accordingly made by Ptolemy, who had, by this time, been declared out of his minority, and crowned with the usual solemnity. Antiochus obtained signal victories over the Egyptians, and at length invested Alexandria, on which Ptolemy Euergetes, who had been placed upon the throne on the deposition of his brother, and Cleopatra his sister, who were then shut up in the town, sent ambassadors to the Romans to solicit their assistance.

In consequence of this the Roman senate sent ambassadors to Egypt to put an end to the war. In the interim a reconciliation was effected between the two brothers at the instance of their sister Cleopatra, and an agreement entered into that they should reign jointly.

Antiochus, enraged at this reconciliation, prosecuted hostilities, subdued all the country as far as Memphis, and marched towards Alexandria, where he was stopped in his progress, and all his designs frustrated, being met at a place called Leusine, by the ambassadors sent from the Roman senate. Among these was Popilius, whom, as a person he had intimately known when at Rome, Antiochus put forth his hand to embrace; but the ambassador declined the compliment, enforced the purport of his message, and peremptorily told him that he must give an immediate answer to the requisition of the senate. Antiochus hesitating, Popilius drew a circle round the king in the sand with his staff, and required him to give his answer before he stirred out of that circle. Antiochus, alarmed at this peremptory mode of proceeding, after some little hesitation, told the ambassador, he would obey the command of the senate, whereupon Popilius accepted his embraces, and acted according to his former friendship with him.

Antiochus, after this, went back to Syria, and Popilius returned with his colleagues to Alexandria, where they ratified and fully fixed the terms of agreement between the two brothers.

Philometer dying soon after this transaction, Ptolemy VII. surnamed Physcon, or tun-bellied, succeeded his brother in all his dominions. He was the most iniquitous and cruel, as well as the most vile and despicable, of all the Ptolemies that reigned in Egypt. Such were his cruelty and oppression, that great numbers fled out of Egypt, and amongst them many learned men, and professors of arts and sciences, by which means learning (that had been a long time lost) was revived in Greece, Asia Minor, the isles, and in all other places where they went. Physcon died at Alexandria in the 67th year of his age, having reigned 29 years from the death of his brother Philometer. He left behind him three sons; Apion, whom he had by a concubine; and Lathyrus and Alexander, whom he had by his niece Cleopatra, to whom he bequeathed the crown of Egypt, in conjunction with one of her sons, whom she should think fit to choose.

Ptolemy VIII. surnamed Lathyrus, had been banished to Cyprus by his father, and his mother wished to keep him from the crown: but a faction being raised in his favour, he was sent for, and placed on the throne, in the year of the world 3887. Nothing worthy of record happened in this reign, which lasted ten years, when his mother contrived to dethrone him, and place his brother Alexander on the throne. Ptolemy Lathyrus then retired to Cyprus, where he was suffered to govern unmolested.

Ptolemy IX. or Alexander I. began his reign A. M. 3897. From the flagitious disposition of the queen mother, her son Alexander became apprehensive that

some iniquitous design was forming against him, as had been against his brother, on which account he took the impious precaution of putting her to death. This parricide occasioned a revolt, and Alexander was driven from the throne by his own subjects, and afterwards slain in an engagement with the revolted. His brother, Ptolemy Lathyrus, being sent for from Cyprus, was reinstated on the throne, and continued to reign over Egypt till his death, which happened 36 years after the death of his father, eleven of which he reigned jointly with his mother in Egypt, eighteen in Cyprus, and seven alone in Egypt after his mother's death. He was succeeded by Cleopatra, his daughter, and only legitimate child. Her proper name was Berenice; *for it is necessary to observe, that as all the males of this family had the common name of Ptolemy, so all the females of it had that of Cleopatra, and had likewise proper names to distinguish them from each other. The keeping of this in view will obviate many difficulties in the Egyptian history.* This Cleopatra was put to death by Alexander, nephew to Lathyrus, to whom she had been espoused; and this monarch, who was called Ptolemy X. or Alexander II. began his reign about the year of the world 3923, and 81 years before Christ. The people at length expelled him the kingdom, and called in Ptolemy Auletes, the illegitimate son of Lathyrus.

Ptolemy XI. surnamed Auletes, or the Piper, from his priding himself on his skill in playing upon that instrument, began his reign in the year of the world 3939, and 65 years before Christ. He was a prince of an infamous character, and at the commencement of his reign Julius Cæsar was consul at Rome. Wishing to enter into an alliance with the Romans, he went thither, and, after having expended vast sums, extorted from his subjects, was forced to depart without success, and retire to Ephesus; after which the Egyptians placed his brother Seleucus on the throne, who proved a very sordid prince, which occasioned the Egyptians to give him the nick-name of Cabiofactes, or the Scullion.

Ptolemy Auletes soon after applied to the Romans to assist him in the recovery of his kingdom; and Gallinus, a Roman general, accompanied by the famous Mark Antony, proceeded directly for Egypt.

As the Egyptians could not withstand the Roman prowess, Auletes was soon restored to his kingdom, but died four years after, and was succeeded by his eldest son Ptolemy, and his eldest daughter Cleopatra, who, according to his will, were to reign in conjunction.

Ptolemy XII. and his sister Cleopatra, jointly succeeded to the throne of Egypt in the year of the world 3953, and 51 years before Christ. This was the Cleopatra who afterwards became so remarkable for the share she had in the civil wars of Rome, and her amours with Mark Antony, the Roman triumvir. Cleopatra, in process of time, being deprived of her share of the sovereignty by the guardians of the minor king, went into Syria and Palestine, where she raised a very considerable body to assert her right by force of arms. Such was the situation of the affairs of Egypt at this period, which was the very time that the unfortunate Pompey fled thither to beg protection against the victorious Julius Cæsar.

Previous to his landing on the Egyptian coast, Pompey dispatched messengers to require the aid of Ptolemy; but as he was still a minor, and could, therefore, return no answer, it was agreed upon by his ministers to cut him off, as the only means of securing the favour of the victorious Cæsar. A stratagem was devised to get Pompey on board a small boat, where some executioners, ready prepared, cut off his head, and threw his body on the sand.

Cæsar then hastened to Egypt, and exerted the authority of a conqueror. Cleopatra soon found means to attach him to her person, and their amour was productive of a son, who was called Cæsarion. Being attached to her person, he was naturally attached to her cause, and having summoned an assembly, he decreed, according

according to the will of the late king, that Ptolemy and Cleopatra should jointly reign in Egypt. He met with considerable opposition in the execution of his decree, but at length bore down all before him. Ptolemy attempting to escape from the conqueror in a boat, which sunk, was drowned in the Nile; after which Cæsar went to Alexandria, when the whole kingdom submitted to his victorious arms. He gave the crown of Egypt to Cleopatra, and continued his amour with her till he was obliged to quit Egypt. Cleopatra having taken off her younger brother, ruled Egypt to her death as sole sovereign, but in a kind of subserviency to the Roman power.

Cæsar, in the interim, had been assassinated at Rome by a conspiracy, at the head of which were Brutus and Cassius; and immediately afterwards the celebrated triumvirate between Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius Cæsar, was formed, in order to revenge the death of Julius Cæsar. Upon this occasion Cleopatra declared for the triumvirs; and Antony, after the defeat of Brutus and Cassius at Philippi, coming into Asia to establish the authority of the triumvirate, was met by Cleopatra at Tarsus, in Cilicia, a circumstance introductory to his ruin; for her beauty, wit, and art, captivated him to such a degree, as to extinguish all his military flame. Antony and Cleopatra continually revelled together in every kind of luxurious dissipation; and in one of their entertainments the latter is said to have dissolved a pearl, valued at 50,000*l.* in vinegar, and swallowed it.

Having passed some months in the most scandalous debauchery, Antony returned to Rome, and married Octavia, the sister of Cæsar Augustus. He retained, however, his fondness for Cleopatra, met her occasionally, and made her valuable presents. She attended him in his progress through Greece, where he repudiated Octavia, and declared war against Octavius or Augustus, who then declared war against Cleopatra, though actually intended against Antony.

Though the armament of Octavius was far inferior to the combined force of Antony and Cleopatra, he came off victorious at the decisive battle of Actium, a circumstance that proved eventually destructive to the lovers; for Antony being betrayed by the Egyptian fleet, which afterwards revolted to the enemy, he fell upon his own sword; and Cleopatra died by the poison of an asp.

At her death ended the reign of the Ptolemies in Egypt, which was reduced to a Roman province. The conquest of Egypt occasioned such an influx of wealth into Rome, that the value of money fell one half, and the prices of provision and merchandize were consequently doubled.

The government of Egypt was committed by Augustus, who was proclaimed emperor 23 years before the birth of Christ, to Cornelius Gallus. He was succeeded by Ælius Gallus, a Roman knight, in which time the Ethiopian queen Candace invaded that country, and carried the Roman garrisons into captivity. She was, however, defeated by Caius Petronius, after

which, for some years, the world enjoyed a most profound tranquillity. Egypt, however, during the reigns of several succeeding emperors, laboured under cruelty, taxation, or neglect; for it was either a persecuted and oppressed, or a disregarded province.

Egypt remained a Roman province till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. About the time of the crusades, between the years of the Christian æra 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noredin, whose son, the famous Saladin, was so dreadful to the Christian adventurers. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body.

During the reigns of these usurpers, which lasted about 267 years, Egypt made a conspicuous figure among the neighbouring nations, and bravely withstood the power of the Turks under Selim, who, after defeating the Mamalukes in several bloody contests, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church, but who having turned Mahometan, and being a man of abilities and address, had rendered himself very popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the Grand Seignior, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also encouraged by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient sultans of Egypt. He was very attentive to the establishment of a regular form of government, and the promotion of commerce, for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders. In the prosecution of his designs, for some time, he was very fortunate, and succeeded in almost all his enterprizes against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and bashaws, whom he repeatedly defeated: but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt by the base conduct of his brother-in-law Mahomed Bey Abudahap, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He died of his wounds, and was honourably interred at Grand Cairo. Abudahap afterwards governed Egypt as Chiek-Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Chiek Daher, where he was found dead in his bed, and was supposed to have been strangled. Chiek Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty, and trusting to their assurances, embraced the Captain Pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age. The Turks have since kept possession of Egypt.

C H A P. XX.

B A R B A R Y.

THE most northern countries of Africa, comprehended under the denomination of Barbary, from their situation and commerce with Europe, are better known than many others of the continent we have already described. This vast track is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Zaara or

the Desert, on the east by Egypt, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean; being in length about 2300 miles, but in breadth very unequal.

The States of Barbary contain the kingdoms of Morocco and Fez, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca, in which order we shall describe them.

SECTION

SECTION I.

THE EMPIRE OF MOROCCO AND FEZ.

Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Mountains, &c.

THIS extensive empire, which now includes the kingdoms of Morocco and Fez, is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north, by Mount Atlas on the south, by Algiers on the east, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth, in the broadest part. It extends from 28 to 36 degrees of north latitude, and from 4 to 9 degrees of west longitude. The empire is divided into three provinces, Morocco, Fez, and Sus.

The climate is extremely hot, particularly towards the south; but is, in general, tolerably healthy, being cooled by the sea breezes, and defended by high mountains from the sultry south winds, which give it a temperature not to be expected from its situation so near the tropic. Indeed, Mount Atlas, the head of which is covered with snow the greatest part of the year, surrounds it in the manner of a crescent to the southward, and in some measure prevents the passage of the damp vapours and pestilential blasts from that quarter. But if the rainy season, which begins in October, continues too long, it occasions pestilential fevers; and the north-west winds, which prevail in March, sometimes greatly affect the lungs and nerves, and injure the products of the earth. In other respects the sky is serene, and the air clear and wholesome. The country is well watered by fine springs, that are found in most moors, and fine winding rivers, which, in general, have their sources in Mount Atlas, and disembogue themselves into the Mediterranean Sea, or the Atlantic Ocean.

The soil of Morocco is so good that it generally produces three crops annually; and, it is said, would, with proper management, furnish every year 100 times more than the inhabitants are capable of consuming: but cultivation is very little attended to, except a few miles round the different cities and towns.

The chief rivers are the Mulvia, the Taga, the Sebu, the Ommirabih, the Tensift, and the Sus.

The Great and Lesser Atlas are not only the principal mountains in Barbary, but some of the most celebrated in the universe. The Great Atlas divides Barbary from Biledulgerid; and the little Atlas extends along the Barbary coast to the Straits of Gibraltar. The coldness and inaccessibility render the Great Atlas in many parts uninhabitable: but some places enjoy a milder climate, contain many villages, numerous herds of cattle and flocks, are well cultivated, and inhabited by Arabs, Berebers, and other African people, who, in the severer parts of the winter, are obliged to retire into vast caverns, to preserve themselves and their flocks from being overwhelmed with the prodigious quantities of snow that fall, and from the inclemency of the weather. These people are, in general, fierce, cruel, and warlike, and are spread in numerous tribes over the various branches of this prodigious mountain. They can bring many men into the field, and have it in their power to be very troublesome to the neighbouring governments, it being as impossible to be entirely upon the defensive against them, as totally to subdue them. This mountain gave rise to many fabulous stories among the ancients.

This country has been always famous for its horses, which, though inferior in size, make up that defect by their fine shape, fleetness, and particularly by their peculiar docility. The inhabitants have been no less celebrated for their dexterity in breaking, training, and riding them, ever since the time of the Romans; and even to this day are allowed to excel all nations, and to be in some measure inimitable in both.

A most beautiful description of that noble animal the horse, is thus translated by Dryden, from Virgil's original:

Upright he walks, on pasterns firm and strait;
His motions easy, prancing in his gait:
The first to lead the way, to tempt the flood,
To pass the bridge unknown, nor fear the trembling
wood:

Dauntless at empty noises, lofty neck'd,
Sharp headed, barrel belly'd, broadly back'd;
Brawny his chest, and deep his colour grey,
For beauty dappled, or the brightest bay;
Faint white and dun will scarce the rearing pay.
The fiery courser, when he hears from far
The sprightly trumpets, and the shouts of war,
Pricks up his ears, and, trembling with delight,
Shifts place, and paws, and hopes the promis'd fight:
On his right shoulder his thick mane reclin'd,
Ruffles at speed, and dances in the wind:
His horny hoofs are jetty black, and round
His chine is double: starting with a bound
He turns the turf, and shakes the solid ground.
Fire from his eyes, clouds from his nostrils flow;
He bears his rider headlong on the foe.

When the great men travel their horses are sumptuously caparisoned, and the horse and man arrayed in bold and manly attire. The women precede them, conveyed in a kind of covered sedan, attended by a servant, who drives or conducts the mule upon whose back it is carried.

The Barbary camel is larger and longer than the Asiatic camel; and the dromedary is very useful on account of its docility and swiftness.

SECTION II.

Various Inhabitants, Persons and Dress of the Moors, principal Cities, &c.

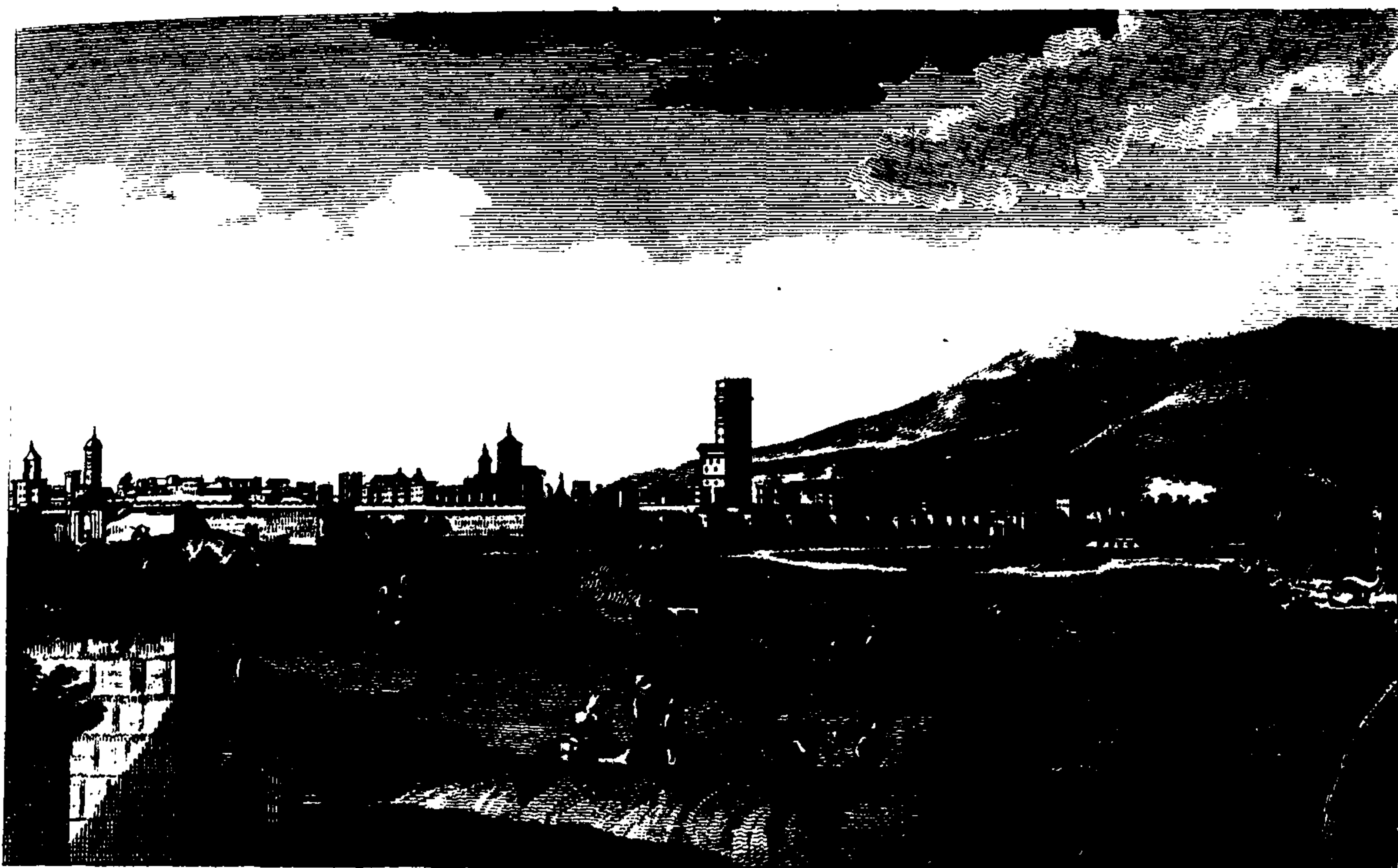
THE inhabitants of this empire are various, as Berebers, Arabs, Moors, Jews, renegadoes of many nations, Christian slaves of many nations, Turks, &c. The natives of Morocco, known by the name of Moors, are of a swarthy complexion; but, from the prodigious number of Negroes imported thither from Guinea, there are almost as many blacks as whites. The Moorish women are, in general, very handsome, and not being exposed to the sun, like the men, are remarkably fair. They marry at eleven years of age, are grandmothers long before they are thirty, and esteemed old at that age. The Moors are allowed a plurality of wives.

Their dress consists of a linen shirt, and drawers, over which they tie a silk cloth or vestment, with a sash; and upon that they wear a loose coat, or rather gown. Their arms and legs are always bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of rank sometimes wear buskins. They shave their heads, on which they wear a turban made of silk or fine linen.

The habit of the women nearly resembles that of the men, only instead of a turban, they wear a round cap made of fine linen. Their drawers are much longer and larger; and when they appear in the streets, their faces are covered with a linen cloth, in the manner of a mask.

The chief city, Morocco, the capital of the empire, is pleasantly situated on an extensive plain between two rivers, the Nephtis and Agmed, and is watered by a third, the Tensift. It is, without doubt, one of the most opulent, populous, and important cities in Africa. The most received opinion is, that it was founded by Abu Techisen, and finished by his warlike son Joseph, who, after obtaining many glorious victories in Spain, brought from thence 30,000 captives, whom he constantly employed in surrounding it with strong walls, which were 12 miles in circumference. It then contained 100,000 houses, and still hath 25 magnificent gates, and a great number of mosques, palace, &c. But at present its pristine splendor is much decayed. It is 16 miles north of Mount Atlas, and 150 from the Atlantic

Engraved for BANKES'S New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.



View of the City of MOROCCO, the Capital of that Kingdom on the coast of Barbary.



Habit of a Horseman in BARBARY, and the manner in which the Women travel.

Atlantic Ocean, in 30 deg. 40 min. north latitude, and 7 deg. west longitude. The walls are so strong, and both with respect to the stones themselves, and the cement with which they are fastened, that they are impetrable to the pick-axe, and other instruments. They are flanked with strong towers, bulwarks, bastions, &c. and surrounded with a deep ditch.

The imperial palace is within a spacious fortress, called Al-Capava, which is situated on the outside of the city. It is defended by high walls, strong towers, a deep ditch, &c.

The royal apartments, halls of audience, seraglio, &c. are noble structures, highly embellished, and sumptuously furnished. The gardens are extensive; but the splendor still remaining is inconsiderable with respect to former grandeur. The houses, in general, are but in an indifferent condition, and many of them gone to decay.

The inhabitants are numerous. The Jews, the number of whom is about 4000, live in a particular quarter of the city. Though highly taxed they acquire wealth, but artfully pretend to poverty, and, for obvious reasons, make a very mean appearance.

There is a handsome bridge over the Tensift, which runs through the city, and supplies the inhabitants with water.

Fez was originally the capital of the kingdom of the same name, and is still a rich and populous city. It comprizes two parts, the Old and the New Fez, and, at present, they form one city.

Old Fez is nine miles in circumference, stands between two hills, is surrounded by strong walls, and flanked with magnificent towers. It is without suburbs, contains many excellent gardens, has narrow streets, seven gates, and two castles; the one old, and gone to decay; the other new, and in good condition. The latter is garrisoned with blacks; but neither have any cannon to defend them. The houses are of stone or brick, three stories high, flat roofed, encompassed with galleries, adorned on the outside with mosaic work, and embellished within with carving, painting, and handsome furniture: but it is to be observed, that, in general, the seraglios are upon the turrets of the houses, from whence the women have a fine prospect; but they are never permitted to stir abroad.

The river Fez, in passing through the city, divides itself into six canals, over the various parts of which are 250 stone bridges, and 370 mills are turned by the several streams. In the city 336 ovens are daily employed. The mosques are computed at 500; fifty of which are of the first rank; and one, in particular, is a most amazing structure: it is a mile and a half in circuit, including the cloister and college belonging to it. The roof is 150 cubits high, and 50 in breadth. The stately gates are 30 in number; and the pillars which support the minaret, or tower, are 30 cubits in length, and 20 in breadth. The roof is sustained by 1500 pillars of white marble, and 17 arches; and two curious lamps, continually kept burning, adorn every arch. In the cloister belonging to this mosque are 42 galleries, and 400 cisterns for the people to perform their ablutions. The college is the most eminent, and contains the best library in the empire. Here are several other hospitals and colleges, which are large, magnificent, and well endowed; 600 water conduits, and 200 spacious inns. The principal magistrate of the city is styled provost of the merchants; besides whom there is a governor, a *cadi*, and their subordinate officers.

Fez is usually deemed the grand magazine, and principal mart of Barbary. Merchants and tradesmen are numerous, and the warehouses are filled with great variety of commodities. The articles of exportation are hides, leather, skins, furs, wool, dried fruits, olives, honey, wax, silk, cotton, flax, ostrich feathers, gold dust, &c. &c. Those of importation are spices, cochineal, vermilion, iron, brass, steel, arms, ammunition, drugs, watches, quicksilver, opium, allum, aloes, linens, woollens, muslins, callicoes, fullians, &c.

No. 37.

Mequinez is situated in a capacious pleasant plain, on the river Sebu. It is surrounded with strong walls, environed by gardens, and embellished by many mosques, colleges, baths, &c. The palace is large, and, though decayed, still superb. The parks and gardens that surround it, with the number of halls, rooms of state, offices, pavilions, &c. are surprising to the beholder. It stands upon the most elevated ground in the city, consists of several squares, contains two mosques, an extensive seraglio, large magazines and store-houses, an armoury, barracks for the guards, and apartments for various mechanics, who are continually retained by the emperor to do business immediately belonging to the palace. The Jews in this city have their peculiar quarter to themselves, in which, as in most other towns of the empire, they are shut up at night. They are plundered, abused, and beat, even by the meanest of the Moors, and dare not resent the ill treatment they receive. The great men horsewhip or cudgel them whenever they come in their way; and they are not permitted to come out of their quarter with shoes and stockings on, being obliged to walk barefooted in the streets frequented by the Moors.

Adjoining to Mequinez, being only separated by a road, is Negro Town, so called from the black troops in the emperor's service being quartered in it.

Sallee stands on the river Gueron, which divides it into two parts. The northern part, encompassed with a strong wall, and defended by battlements, towers, &c. is Salla or Salle, properly so called: but the southern part, named Rabat, comprises many farm-houses, orchards, gardens, and corn-fields; the latter being sufficiently extensive to yield wheat enough for the sustenance of 15,000 persons: yet the whole is surrounded by walls, which were erected by the captives Almanzor brought from Spain. On the south-east part there is a tower, which serves for a land-mark in the day time, and a light-house at night. Beneath the tower are two docks, the one for wintering, and the other for building of ships. The harbour is large, but so shallow, that the piratical vessels are obliged to put into the Island of Tedal, near its mouth. The town is defended by two castles, which communicate with each other, but the fortifications are irregular and ill designed. All articles of commerce here pay a tenth to the emperor; but the chief support of the place is the piratical trade.

Magazan, 30 miles south of Sallee, is a strong, well-built town, possessed by the Portuguese, who have a numerous garrison here. The piratical ships often intercept the provision vessels, which puts the garrison to great straits, and obliges them to make excursions and rob the Moors, in order to obtain a subsistence.

Alcassar and Arzila were formerly places of importance, but are now gone to decay.

Tangier is situated on a good bay. Its ancient name was Tigris, being the capital of Mauritania Tingitana. It was once a noble city, containing many sumptuous edifices. The Portuguese took it in 1471, and considerably increased its strength, though they destroyed much of its beauty. They afterwards ceded it to the English, as part of the dowry of Catherine, princess of Portugal, upon her marriage with Charles II. king of Great Britain, when a mole was made at an immense expence, which ran 300 fathoms into the sea; but the parliament deeming it too chargeable an incumbrance upon the nation, it was abandoned in 1684, and the fortifications blown up. It still continues but a mean little fishing town, though the Moors have attempted to re-people it. The few inhabitants are great thieves, whenever they can find an opportunity, and are exceeding cruel to those they can get into their power.

Melille is situated at the bottom of a bay, called Bu-trefolcos, 120 miles south-west of Oran. It received its name from the great quantity of honey which the neighbouring territory yields. It was anciently the capital of the province, and is still a considerable place, containing 2000 houses. It is defended by a citadel, and now in the hands of the Spaniards.

Ceuta is advantageously situated at the entrance of the Mediterranean, on a kind of peninsula, which is the nearest point of land to the Spanish coast. It has a strong garrison, a magnificent cathedral, and a noble palace. It belongs to the Spaniards, is a place of great trade, and has a good harbour. Near this city is a mountain with seven heads, which the ancients distinguished by the appellation of Septem Fratres, or the Seven Brothers.

Teutan is built on the declivity of a rocky hill, at the mouth of the Straits, and surrounded by a wall of mud and water. The castle is strong, square, and flanked with towers. The garrison consists of 1500 men, that is 1100 infantry, and 400 cavalry. The Christian slaves are here very numerous, very ill used, and nightly locked up in a small dismal dungeon, called Mortimore. The houses in general are white-washed both within and without. The palace of the bashaw, in the city, and his villa, at about two miles distance, are magnificent structures; and the mosques are elegant. The santon, or monks, have about twelve cloisters, which are places of refuge for all criminals, except those guilty of treason. The Jews are about 5000 in number, and have seven synagogues. All the inhabitants visit each other over the tops of the houses, which are flat roofed, as is the custom in Algiers and other parts of Barbary. The prospect, either towards the sea or land side, is very noble, the circumjacent country being exceeding fertile, and finely interspersed with orchards, gardens, lawns, villas, groves, &c.

Messa is situated at the foot of Mount Atlas, on the river Suz, at the place where it discharges itself into the sea. It is divided into three distinct parts, each being surrounded by a wall, and about a mile distant from each other.

The adjacent country is fertilized by the overflowing of the river, and whales have been frequently cast upon the shore.

Tessut, like Messa, is divided into three parts. A branch of the river Suz waters it, and passes through a large mosque in the center of it, by which means the people have an opportunity of performing their ablutions in a running stream. The town contains about 4000 families. The principal commodities are sugar and Morocco leather, and the neighbouring territory is extremely fertile.

Tamdant is a small, but handsome, populous, and flourishing place.

Tedsi, famous for its sugar manufactory, contains about 5000 houses.

Tagost, the largest city in the province of Suz, is situated in a fertile plain, and contains about 8000 families, 400 of which are Jews. Here are two markets weekly, to which the Arabs and Moors resort with their commodities, and the Negroes to buy apparel.

Taphilet, or Tafilet, was once a kingdom of itself, but never very considerable: the limits and extent are uncertain, and, in general, the whole country is a long, dry, barren track of land. The people here are miserably poor, the common sort living principally upon dates and camels flesh, the chief produce of the country being an excellent kind of indigo. Most of the dates which are sent to Europe come from hence, as the emperor will not permit them to be exported from any other part of his dominions. About 4000 horse are retained in this district, to keep the people, who are chiefly Berbers, in subjection.

The city of Taphilet, which stands on a river of the same name, is the residence of the governor, and has a strong castle to defend it. The inhabitants, about 2000 in number, are industrious in the manufactures of leather, silk, and linen, and, in general, possess a competency in camels, horses, cattle, date trees, &c. It is a great rendezvous of both African and European merchants, and the people are very sociable, though extremely superstitious.

Subordinate to the governor of Tafilet is the province of Gesula, a dry, barren country, the limits of

which are not perfectly known. The mountains, however, yield plenty of iron and copper, and the inhabitants are famous for working in those metals, by the exchange of which they procure horses, linens, woolens, spices, &c. They have annually several fairs, but one in particular, which is kept on a large plain, lasts two months, and is resorted to by merchants from all parts of Barbary: and this fair is, perhaps, better regulated than any other in the universe; as the people, though naturally brutish, are under such restrictions, that a quarrel was never known to happen during fair-time.

SECTION III.

Government, Navy, Army, Commerce, Coins, Learning, Customs, Religion, Language, &c.

GOVERNMENT in Morocco can hardly be said to exist, the emperors being judges, and often executioners with their own hands, in cases by them deemed criminal. Nor is their barbarity more surprising than the submission with which their subjects bear it.

The following circumstances will display the rapacity and ferocity of the natives in general, as well as the inexorable cruelty of an emperor in particular.

In the year 1746 an English vessel, called the Inspector privateer, having sprung a leak, was under the necessity of running ashore in the Bay of Tangier, the crew not doubting a favourable reception from the Moors, as Muley Abdullah, then emperor of Morocco, was under a treaty of peace with the crown of Great Britain. In this, however, they were fatally disappointed, as many of them were inhumanly butchered, several perished in the water, and many of those who escaped were stripped and plundered. Out of 183, only 87 survived. These, with great difficulty, obtained permission to go to the British consul, in order to procure relief in their unhappy situation. The consul applied to the alcaid for permission for his countrymen to go over to Gibraltar, but received for answer, that it could not be granted without orders from the emperor.

The captain of the vessel, and four of the officers, alarmed at this disappointment, effected their escape by means of getting on board a man of war that had lately brought the consul from Gibraltar. This was no sooner known, than the Moors, finding part of their booty irrecoverably lost, swarmed down in legions on the English, and drove them immediately to prison. When their condition was laid before the alcaid, he only answered with a malicious smile, "If the unbelieving dogs are hungry, let them eat the stones."

At length a native of rank, not wholly divested of humanity, obtained permission of the alcaid for them to beg about the town in the day-time, under the conduct of a guard; but at night they were obliged to return to their dismal dungeon. The subsistence arising from these means was very scanty; till at length they were driven to the brink of despair by being informed that they would soon be conducted to the emperor, whose presence they dreaded to such a degree, that they determined to attempt their escape; but in this they were unhappily discovered, and prevented from carrying their design into execution.

This attempt to escape being deemed an act of rebellion, large iron chains were fastened round their necks, and twenty of them were linked together in one chain. After having been confined a considerable time in a most loathsome and gloomy dungeon, and almost perished with hunger, they were conducted by the alcaid, his officers, and attendants, to the emperor's camp. As they waited the emperor's orders within half a mile of his tent, they could observe, by the countenance of the alcaid and others, that there was something very dreadful to be expected.

A messenger then came from the emperor commanding their immediate appearance before his tent, on which

which the Moors were drawn up in one line, and the English in another, the guards immediately surrounded them. When his majesty, by a messenger, commanded the alcaid and his attendants to advance nearer him, they ran to him with the utmost haste, and, prostrating themselves, informed him that they had brought him a present, besides the English captives. Having accepted the present, Muley Abdullah asked the alcaid where the captain of the Christian captives was? To this it was answered that he had made his escape. He then asked for the officers, and being answered as before, vehemently exclaimed against the alcaid and his attendants, and upbraided them in the most opprobrious terms. Four officers of his guard were ordered to conduct the new captives to a castle at a little distance from the camp till farther orders. Soon after the alcaid, and all his guard, were driven to the same place, and put in irons. The English captives were then consigned to the severest toil during the whole day, nor permitted a moment's intermission, or a drop of water, though the sun shone so hot that their heads and backs were an entire blister.

The emperor one morning having surveyed the English slaves for about three hours, took a view of the alcaid and his miserable companions, and then turning about sixty paces from the castle, gave orders for their being brought before him, which being done, the alcaid, and four of the principal people, were set apart from the rest.

After this, with the utmost composure, he called for his scymetar, which being delivered to him, he drew it out of the scabbard with a peculiar air, and ordered one of the delinquents to be taken out of his chain, and brought before him. This unhappy victim now fell prostrate on the ground, and with tears implored his pardon; but the emperor, deaf to all his intreaties, stretched out his arm, and crying, "In the name of God," struck off his head at one blow. This being done, he delivered his scymetar to the sword-bearer, to whom, and others, he gave orders for their following the example he had set them, and then retired to a small distance to see his commands punctually obeyed. At this time there were no less than 335 miserable wretches of his own subjects that lost their lives in this arbitrary manner. In order to strike the greater terror into the minds of his surviving subjects, the emperor ordered the heads that had been cut off to be collected in hampers, nailed on the walls of the city of Mequinez, and exposed to the public view, while their bodies were dragged about a mile from the place of execution, and there left to moulder into dust, or be devoured by birds or beasts of prey.

Our unfortunate countrymen, after a series of the most acute sufferings, through a long and miserable captivity, at the interposition of the consul, and by means of the payment of an extravagant sum, demanded by the emperor, were put on board an English man of war, and conveyed to Gibraltar, from whence, in a short time, they found means to return to their native country.

The emperor has not only unbounded power over the property of the people during their lives, but is the universal heir to all his subjects upon their demise; so that the greatest part of the wealth of the empire centers in the royal coffers. His titles are very pompous, being called, The most glorious, mighty, and noble Emperor of Afric, King of Fez and Morocco, Taphilet, Suz, Dahra, and all the Algarbe, and its Territories in Afric, Grand Sharif (that is descendant) of the Prophet Mahomet, &c. &c. &c.

His revenue is considerably increased by the piratical trade; for he is at no expence in fitting out the corsair vessels, yet has a tenth part of the effects and captives which they take; and after his tythe is deducted, is at liberty to purchase the remainder of the prisoners, if he thinks proper, at only 50 crowns per head. This produces immense profit to him, either by their ransom or labour, for he makes them all work, and supplies them with nothing but a scanty allowance of coarse bread and

oil. If they fall sick he gives them no assistance, but leaves them to the fathers of a Spanish convent, who supply them with necessaries and medicines: but even the benevolence of these is taxed, as they pay him a considerable annual stipend, for a toleration to act with humanity to their fellow creatures. Another branch of his revenue is a tenth part of the cattle, corn, fruit, honey, wax, hides, rice, &c. extorted from the Arabs and Berebers, by his governors and bashaws, who levy this tax with the utmost severity. The Jews pay a capitation tax: and all the commodities in which the Christians deal are heavily assessed.

The navy of Morocco seldom consists of above 12 vessels, the largest of which carry no more than 20 guns, and about 200 men, who are badly provided for, poorly armed, and very indifferently manned. It is happy for the Christians that the whole coast of Morocco does not afford a single good harbour. Sallee, which is the best of any, is but very indifferent, and at low water is almost dry.

Moors, renegadoes, and negroes, who are badly paid and worse disciplined, compose the army. The negroes, however, are deemed the best soldiers, being brought from Guinea very young, and always educated for a military life.

The commerce of Morocco is carried on chiefly by Jews and Christians in English and French bottoms, as few of the Moors either understand it, or have any trading vessels of their own. Roguery is so universal in Morocco, that an expert cheat is looked upon as a very ingenious, useful, and respectable person; and frauds in trade are so common, that cheating is studied systematically as a most necessary art. The land commerce is carried on by caravans, which go yearly to Mecca, Medina, and Guinea.

The coins of this country are the fluce, which is a copper coin less than a farthing, 20 of which makes a blanqueen. This last is a silver coin of about two-pence value; and the ducat is a gold coin worth about 9s.

The learning of the people of this country is confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic, as few of them attempt any thing higher, except the priests and doctors of law.

The common people admire without understanding the science of astrology; so that superstition, and a belief in omens, predictions, &c. are general throughout the nation. Most of the towns have public schools and academies, in which children are taught to read, write, cast accounts, and repeat a short catechism, which contains the principles of their religion. The Mahometan is the established religion here, but they have introduced a variety of innovations, and added several ridiculous ceremonies. Every Friday, which is their sabbath, both sexes visit the sepulchres of their ancestors and relations, in blue habits, blue being their mourning colour. They greatly venerate the dead, embellish their tombs as much as their circumstances will permit, and suffer no Christian to approach within a certain distance of them. They are very particular in the observation of the following superstitious and whimsical notions.

To place victuals and drink upon the tombs of their ancestors and relations, at certain times, that the dead may not starve in their graves.

To bury gold, silver, jewels, &c. with the corpse, that he may not be in bad circumstances in the other world.

To dig the grave very wide, that the defunct may not be incommoded for want of room: and never to bury two persons in the same grave.

The Mahometans here venerate both the pilgrims and their horses who have been at Mecca; but they profess the utmost abhorrence to Christians of all denominations. They seldom mention them without a curse, and the mildest epithet they bestow on them is that of dogs. They enforce the attendance on public worship with great rigour. Women are, however, excluded from places of public worship; and the prevail-

ing opinion of the Moors is, that all persons, of any nation or religion, and of either sex, are secure of salvation prior to the age of fifteen; but after that period, they imagine that none but Mussulmen can be saved. Idiots and madmen are deemed saints, and their sepulchres, as well as those of the Mecca pilgrims, are sanctuaries for all crimes but treason. Games of chance are strictly forbidden; and those who are detected in playing for money are liable to be severely punished. They are strict observers of the ceremonials of their religion, particularly of the great fast of Ramadan.

Their language is modern Arabic, which prevails throughout the whole empire.

To their honour it is said, that they never use the name of God irreverently, or upon trivial occasions, and abhor the very idea of swearing, unless when they mention a Christian, when the execrations they use are chiefly in derision of, and to express their contempt for, the Christians, on account of their propensity to this very vice.

They seldom wrangle or quarrel with each other, very rarely come to blows, and murders (those committed by the emperors excepted) are never heard of. They are scrupulously obedient to their parents, pay the most profound respect to their superiors, and are loyal to their sovereigns even to a most absurd degree of veneration. They are, in general, exceeding temperate in eating and drinking; though some of the great men lead abandoned lives; but the people in general use a great deal of opium. It is singular, that in the most civilized nations in Europe, vast crowds of natives flock to see public executions, with a kind of unfeeling curiosity; but in Morocco it is quite the reverse, for all ranks of people carefully keep out of the way, and a criminal is often executed without any persons being present except the officers of justice, who attend officially.

SECTION IV.

HISTORY OF MOROCCO.

MOROCCO and Fez, the ancient Mauritania, were little known till the time of their conquest by the Romans. Begud, the first prince of whom we have any authentic account, was cotemporary with Julius Cæsar. On the demise of Regud, this country became a Roman province, and was afterwards conferred by Augustus Cæsar upon the younger Juba, whose son Ptolemy was put to death by the tyrant Caligula. The country was then over-run by the Goths, who possessed it till they were driven out by the Saracens A. D. 600. The Saracens were ejected by the Arabians, who divided Barbary into many petty kingdoms till the year 1068, when they were all united into one sovereignty under the family of the Almarazides; for Joseph, the second monarch of that race, founded Morocco, and not only subdued Fez, but the Moorish dominions in Spain. The race of the Almarazides became extinct without a memorable transaction in either of the reigns.

Alboacen, the sixth monarch of the Merins, was defeated by the kings of Castile and Portugal; and in 1540 that race becoming extinct, the Shariffs, or Cheriffs, the supposed successors of Mahomet, were advanced to the imperial dignity. Nothing remarkable happened till the reign of Sidan, the eighth monarch, who applied to the court of England for aid against a gang of pirates who had possessed themselves of the port of Salce. The reigning monarch, Charles I. complied with his request, and sent some ships to his assistance by which means the pirates were taken or destroyed; and the emperor, in return, sent 300 Christian slaves as a present to king Charles. This monarch died in 1630, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Muley Abdelmelech, who was remarkable for his cruelty and drunkenness, and was, after having reigned four years, murdered by a Christian slave.

He was succeeded by his brother Muley Elwaly, a prince of a sweet disposition, and generous spirit, who began his reign by releasing all state prisoners, and increasing the pay of his troops, and died much regretted after having possessed the crown twelve years.

His brother, Muley Hamed Cheyk, succeeded him; but being murdered by the Arabs, they raised one of their own chiefs, named Crumel Hack, to the crown, who was, on his demise, succeeded by Shariff Muley, king of Taphilet. The reign of this prince was but short; for drinking immoderately, he one day mounted a spirited horse in a drunken frolic, and riding furiously into a grove of orange trees, he was thrown against the trunk of a tree, fractured his skull, and expired of the wound.

He was succeeded by Muley Ishmael, who was remarkable for an odd jumble of policy, absurdity, and cruelty. In his administration of justice, in which province he always shewed himself very ready, and easy of access, he was very rigid, yet would sometimes run into some wild extravagancies, of which the following instance may serve as a specimen: A poor farmer having complained that some of the emperor's negroes, whom, by the way, he was noted for keeping at short allowance, had stolen from him a yoke of oxen, which were his sole dependence, he ordered the whole of his negroes to pass before him, and shot every one that the farmer accused; but asking him afterwards what recompence he could make him for the loss of so many stout negroes, and the man being at a loss what to answer, he made him undergo the same fate as the robbers.

He was for ever building and pulling down again, alledging, that he did it to keep his subjects so busy that they might have no time to mutiny or rebel: "For (says he) if I have a bag of rats, unless I keep the bag stirring, they will eat their way through it." He had 3000 wives, 5000 concubines, 900 sons, and 300 daughters; all of whom, at times, felt the effects of his cruelty and caprice. He would frequently shoot, stab, or behead both slaves and subjects for his amusement; and was so avaricious, that he spent his whole life in plundering his people, and amassing wealth. Every thing was made subservient to his miserable temper. If any body complained to him of having been robbed or defrauded, the criminal was first ordered to make restitution of the property in question, not to the person aggrieved, but to himself, as he asserted that he was the only sufferer, his dignity being insulted by the crime; and then a considerable fine was levied upon the culprit, as a recompence to offended justice, but all went into his own coffers. Money was the most dangerous thing that a man could possess, as it was sure to be extorted from him, not only by unjust, but by cruel means.

Muley Mahomet raised a rebellion against him, but being taken prisoner, his right hand and left foot were cut off by the emperor's order, of which wounds he died. At length Muley Ishmael, one of the most infernal monsters of cruelty and avarice that ever existed, died a natural death in 1727, having reigned 55 years, which is truly astonishing in a country where infanticides, dethronements, and assassinations were so common.

Muley Hamet Deby, one of Muley Ishmael's sons, succeeded him, having been appointed by that emperor, not for any particular merit, but because he was the most dissolute of all his children; for Muley Ishmael fancied that his son's drunkenness and intemperance would be foils to set off his own sobriety and abstemiousness.

Muley Hamet was deposed by his favourite eunuch, and his brother Abdelmelech proclaimed emperor, but the latter soon rendering himself odious by his cruelties, Muley Hamet was again restored to the throne. Abdelmelech was kept in close confinement for some time, but at length strangled, by order of his brother, and Muley Hamet died five days after through drunkenness, and was succeeded by Muley Abdullah.

From

From that period nothing remarkable occurred till the siege of Ceuta, which commenced October 23, 1774, and the siege of Melilæ, which began on the 8th of December of the same year by the troops of Morocco. But the emperor's army, through their total want of discipline and experience, the conduct of the Spanish officers, and bravery of the men in the garrison, not only failed of success in the attempt, but were repulsed with great loss. Warlike preparations were continued till March 1775, when the Moors abandoned the enterprize.

SECTION V.

ALGIERS.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Animal Productions, &c.

THIS kingdom is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, on the east by Tunis, and on the west by Morocco. It extends in length 480 miles, in breadth about 100, and lies between 30 and 37 deg. north lat. and between 1 deg. west and 9 deg. east long. It is divided into 18 provinces.

The climate of Algiers is serene and fine, and the people are unacquainted with the extremes of heat and cold. This is to be understood only of the parts toward the sea, the inland parts being principally wild and barren, and very little inhabited except by a great variety of wild creatures, particularly lions, tygers, leopards, buffalos, wild boars, stags, porcupines, monkeys, ostriches, &c.

Of the beasts the most extraordinary and worthy of notice is the lion. This animal has a head remarkably large, fourteen teeth in each jaw, a strong neck, rough tongue beset with prickles, and bright shining eyes; the structure of the paws, teeth, eyes, and tongue is the same as those of the cat.

The difference betwixt the lion and lioness is this: the latter hath no long hair about the neck, but the muzzle is more taper, the head flatter, and the claws less than those of the lion.

The characteristics of a lion are the strength of his limbs, the majesty of his appearance, the dignity of his pace, the fire of his eyes, and the nobleness of his disposition; he slights a weak enemy, but attacks a strong one with the most impetuous fury. He expresses his anger by erecting his mane, and beating his sides with his tail; but his hunger and ferocious temper often give way to his generosity:

For when the gen'rous lion has in sight
His equal match, he rouses for the fight:
But when his foe lies prostrate on the plain,
He sheaths his paws, uncurls his angry mane,
And, pleas'd with bloodless honours of the day,
Walks over, and disdains th' inglorious prey.

The tyger has a short neck, and skin full of blackish streaks, or yellow spots encompassed with black hair; shining eyes, sharp teeth, crooked claws, feet like those of a cat, and long tails without any tuft at the end, like a lion. The flesh is white, tender, and well tasted. The tyger will not feed upon any animal but what he kills himself; and when he meets with several animals, he kills all if he can, and sucks a little of the blood of each.

A panther, or leopard, is like a tyger in all respects except the size and skin, being a smaller animal, and spotted instead of streaked: the body is long, the eyes bright, the mouth large, the teeth strong and white, the ears round, and the spots of several colours.

The porcupine is about the size of a badger, and not unlike that animal in shape, being about two feet and a half from the end of the nose to the tail; the feet are short, the neck is about five inches in length, and the head the same. On the back and sides he is covered all over with quills, on the back part of the

head, and on the neck, there is a broad tuft, consisting of many flexible quills: some of the quills are a foot, and many of the whiskers six inches long.

Description of the respective Districts of Algiers.

ALGIERS is divided into three distinct districts or governments, viz. the Eastern, or Levantine; the Western, and the Southern government. The towns in the first are Bona, Constantina, Gigeri, Bugia, Steffa, Tebes, Zamoura, Biscara, Necanz, and Couco. Of these places it may be said in general, that though they exhibit some traces of former splendor, they have now every appearance of poverty and desolation. There are garrisons in some of them, but the people are savage and brutal. They mostly lead a roving life, and subsist chiefly by rapine.

The towns of the Western government are Oran, Tremecen, Mostagar, Tenez and Shershel.

Oran, the most important of them, was taken by the Spahiards in 1505, and recovered by the Algerines in 1708; but the former re-took it in 1732, and are still in possession of it.

The rest are in a state of decay; some of them have garrisons, and the inhabitants in general come under the foregoing description of those of the last described district.

The Southern district, or third government, is inhabited by a wild set of people, who roam from place to place, and live in tents while they reside in any particular spot. The territory itself is hilly, a part of Mount Atlas running through it: the only riches of the people are their numerous flocks and herds. They pay a tribute to government, but the bey is obliged to come at the head of an army to collect it annually, and many then evade the payment by retiring to inaccessible places till the troops are withdrawn.

Description of the City of Algiers and its Environs.

ALGIERS stands in 36 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and 34 deg. 15 min. east longitude, and is situated upon the Mediterranean Sea, which washes it upon the north, and north-east sides. It is built upon a declivity, on which account, and the whiteness of the terraces, the prospect of it from the sea is admirable. It is about three miles in circumference, and the walls are in general 30, and towards the sea 40 feet in height, 12 feet in thickness, and flanked with square towers. The ditch is 20 feet wide, and seven deep. Many of the gates of Algiers have been walled up; but six remain open, viz.

1. The Alcaffava, which forms the western angle of the highest part of the city, is of an octagonal figure, and has embrasures on every side.
2. The Babjiddeed, or New Gate, towards the south.
3. Bab-Azoone towards ditto.
4. The Fisher's Gate, which forms the eastern angle of the city.
5. The Mole, or Dowan Gate, towards the north.
6. The Babel-wed, or River Gate, facing the river El-ved towards the north.

On the western side of the river El-ved is a ridge of hills, on which are erected two fortresses. These are the strength on the land side, but the fortifications towards the sea are much stronger, and more considerable.

The mole was the work of Cheredjn the son of Barbarossa, as well as many of the other fortifications; for that monarch employed all the Christian slaves in the improvement of the old, and construction of new fortifications in and about Algiers; and by personally inspecting their proceedings, had the satisfaction to see all he wished for completed in the space of three years.

The city of Algiers is supposed to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, 2000 Christian slaves, and some renegadoes. There is one street which is broad and handsome, and passes quite through the town from

east to west, in which the houses and shops are elegant and capacious, and the markets are here kept; but all the other streets are narrow, incommodious and dirty; so that passengers are forced to squeeze themselves continually against the houses, to give way to camels, horses, asses, mules, &c. and persons of all denominations are obliged to make room, if they meet with a Turkish soldier, till he is past, otherwise they are sure of being insulted and ill treated.

The houses, which are about 15000 in number, are built either of stone or brick, upon a square plan, with a paved court in the center. Round the court is a double range of galleries one above the other, and both supported by columns. All the houses are flat-roofed; the terraces in general serve either to walk upon, or dry linen, but many embellish them with neat gardens, and a summer-house in one corner. The people are obliged, by the laws of the place, to white-wash their houses inside and out, at least once a year; but all who can afford it do it much oftener. The inhabitants may pass from one end of the town to the other over the roofs of the houses, and most of them visit each other this way. Though the houses in general are mean, many of the principal people have very fine edifices, the pillars and pavements of which are of a very beautiful marble, and the ceilings and folding-doors finely carved, painted and gilt. Of these the palace of the dey stands in the center of, and is the most magnificent building in the city. It is very extensive, and surrounded by two superb galleries, one above the other, supported by marble pillars. It has two grand halls, in one of which the dewan meets every Sunday, Monday and Tuesday.

The barracks for the troops are noble structures, adorned with fountains, and contain many spacious and convenient apartments. Married men are precluded from lodging here, but take up their habitations either in private houses, or in one of the four fendacas of the town; the latter being large commodious buildings, consisting of several ranges of apartments, warehouses, &c. which are let indiscriminately to all who chuse to take them, and serve instead of caravanseras, or inns. Christian strangers, if of any consideration, are usually accommodated at the consul's house of the nation to which they belong; but the poor Levantine, or other traders, lodge as above, and may eat and drink according to their circumstances or inclinations, as there are many cooks shops, taverns and other public houses kept either by the Christian slaves, or the Jews, who will accommodate any person, or deal in any commodity.

The mosques are numerous, superbly built, and chiefly situated near the sea-side. The baths in general are large, sumptuous, paved with marble, and well furnished with the conveniences requisite in such places. The Mahometans are obliged, by their religion, to use them five times daily, but their pleasure often prompts them to go still more frequently.

A number of baths are appropriated to the use of women only, who do not resort to them for the benefit of bathing alone, but for the sake of intriguing; for though the most dreadful punishments attend detection, yet the Algerine women venture every thing to pursue their inclinations.

"The female sex (says a celebrated traveller) are still more devoted to gallantry in this country than in Constantinople; the climate inspires fondness, and the scorching air raises in the heart such a flame as nothing can extinguish; an African woman will brave every sort of danger to satiate her passion."

As a proof of the violent lengths to which love will carry the African women, we shall present our readers with the following circumstances, which are related by a gentleman who resided here at the time they took place.

"The only daughter of one of the richest Moors in this country entertained a passion for a Portuguese slave. The girl, pursuant to the custom established in

Africa, made the first advances; neither the large fortune she justly expected, nor the groveling condition of her lover, could divert the resolution she had taken to marry him: and notwithstanding the obstacles she saw with regard to the execution of her project, nothing could make her lose the hopes of giving success to it. The Portuguese, struck with the thoughts of his good fortune, offered the fond maid the moment she discovered her passion, to run away with her to Lisbon; which might have been done, and the Christian might have escaped by the assistance furnished him by Zulima, for such was the name of our beautiful female African. She was sensible that the expedient proposed by her lover was the most rational one, and almost the only one that could bring her to her wished-for happiness; but being a jealous Mahometan, and bigotted to her religion, she could not consent to retire to a country where she would have been forced to quit her faith. I love you, Sebastiano, said she to her lover, much more than I do myself; grief will kill me if I am not made your wife, and yet I can never prevail upon myself to purchase my happiness at the price of my faith. It is not impossible but we may be happy in this country, without running the hazard of being discovered, in case we should fly: change your religion; remove, by turning Mahometan, the chief obstacle that keeps us asunder, and leave the rest to me. The Portuguese was much less attached to his religion than the female Mahometan, not to mention that the fear of totally losing his mistress, the desire of recovering his liberty, and the hope of acquiring a great fortune, had the strongest influence on his resolutions. He promised to comply with any thing she might require of him, and upon a solemn promise made by him to quit his religion whenever it should be necessary, the charming Moor indulged him with whatever love was capable of bestowing.

"These favours served only to strengthen the passion which Sebastiano felt for her; the fear he was under of one day losing his dear Zulima increased his fondness, and his mistress was in the like frame of mind. Her whole attention was to give success to the design she had in view, but she found new obstacles every moment; when on a certain day, at a time she least expected it, her father declared that he intended to marry her to one of the principal men of the country. These words were as a thunderbolt to the maiden; in the first transports of her grief she resolved to fall at her father's feet, and open her whole soul to him; nevertheless, she did not yet dare to comply with her first impulses, for fear of exposing her lover to the anger of an exasperated master, which might probably carry him to the greatest lengths.

"In this dilemma Zulima resolved to make use of an expedient, which was equally extraordinary and infallible: in order to succeed in her design, she bade her lover meet her at a certain place, whither she went on pretence of going to the bath, and was attended only by one woman: Sebastiano being come to the place appointed, had like to have died with sorrow, upon hearing his mistress was going to enter into the marriage state: however, Zulima bade him take heart, telling him, that she hoped fortune would soon become more propitious to him; she then ordered the woman who had accompanied her, and was her confidant, to go and inform the cadî, that her mistress was in such a place in the arms of a Christian: the attendant obeying, the judge came with his subaltern officers, and surprised the two lovers in the midst of their warmest transports, when they were instantly conveyed to the prison where criminals are tried: Zulima's father being told the accident which had happened to his daughter, was seized with despair, upon which he flew to the prison in order to see her, but he was told that he could not be admitted to speak with her till such time as her trial was over; that enquiry was then making whether the Christian slave would turn Mahometan, and that if he would comply, on that condition the

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Algerine method of EXECUTING a CHRISTIAN, for attempting to escape from Slavery.



drawn by John.

drawn by John.

Algerine method of PUNISHING a CRIMINAL, found guilty of committing Burglary.

two lovers should be married together pursuant to the laws; but that in case of his refusal, he should be impaled, and his daughter drowned in the sea.

"Mustapha, for this was the name of Zulima's father, knew but too well what punishment would be inflicted upon his daughter, in case the Portuguese refused to turn Mussulman; and, indeed, the only motive which prompted Mustapha to desire a sight of them, was to offer his wealth, and engage the Christian to change his religion. He had no occasion to make use of rhetoric to exhort them to prefer life to a cruel death; for the moment he made the overtures, Sebastiano answered, that he would gladly embrace the religion proposed by Zulima, and marry her; and the father thought himself happy in having the opportunity of preserving the life of his only daughter upon these conditions."

There are several tolerable edifices without the walls of the town, which add to the beauty of the environs, particularly the marine officers public hall, a marabout's superb dwelling, and a variety of Turkish sepulchres and monuments. Among the latter six magnificent tombs, of a circular figure, are the most conspicuous. These were erected to the memory of six deys, who were successively elected, and then murdered in the dewan within a few days. It is to be observed, that the tombs of deys and bashaws are distinguished by a stone, on which a turban is carved in relieve; those of the agas, and other military officers, by a pike fixed in the ground close to the coffin; those of the sea captains by a staff, with a gilded ball at the top; and those of the common people by stones laid on the grave in the form of a coffin.

The city of Algiers formerly had none but rain water, and the inhabitants were often greatly distressed upon that account; till a Moor, who had been driven from Spain, contrived, by means of two aqueducts, to introduce as much water into the city as was requisite to supply 100 fountains with water.

The country about Algiers is very fertile, and the gardens, groves, and villas numerous. In their gardens they use little art, but trust to nature in most productions of the earth, which occasions a wild exuberance to reign throughout the whole, and many of the fruits and vegetables not to arrive at the perfection they might be brought to by means of engrafting, pruning, transplanting, &c. The gardens are not walled, but surrounded by enclosures of Barbary fig-trees, which, from their compactness and prickles, are more secure than any other kind of fence. Among other rich spots in Algiers, the great plain of Mettijah is admired for its astonishing fertility: it is 50 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, includes many delightful villas, fragrant groves, and pleasant gardens; and produces such a profusion of the most delicious fruits of all kinds, rice, roots, and grain of every species, that the inhabitants enjoy always two, and frequently three crops in the year.

The only natural curiosities in the vicinity of this city are the hot baths of Meereega, the principal of which is 12 feet square, and 4 deep. The waters are exceedingly hot, and, when they have filled the above basin, discharge themselves into a smaller, where the Jews bathe, as they are not permitted to use the same bath as the Mahometans. These hot baths proceed from the great quantity of sulphur, nitre, and other inflammable bodies in the bowels of the earth; from whence, likewise, originate the frequent earthquakes that disturb the kingdom in general, and the city of Algiers in particular.

Inhabitants, Habitations, Dress, Marriage Ceremonies, Weapons, Disposition, Government, Language, Commerce, Religion, Revenues, Punishments, Customs and manner of Living, Funeral Rites, Armament, &c. of the Algerines.

ALGIERS may be said to comprise a mixture of most nations; but the most numerous of its inhabitants are the Moors and Arabians. The Moors are

divided into two orders, viz: those who live in towns and follow piracy, or various professions by land or sea, and those who wander about without being possessed of houses, land, or riches. The first are the citizens of the kingdom, the latter the bulk of the inhabitants.

The wandering sort are distinguished into various tribes, each forming an itinerant village, and every family living in a portable hut. They live by the produce of the lands, which they farm of those of the first order. They pay their rent to their landlords in corn, herbs, fruit, honey, wax, &c. and a tribute to the dey, according to the number of the family in each moving village, or rather camp. Their tents are mean, their utensils trifling, their circumstances poor, and their manner of living filthy. They have no chimnies to these habitations; the fires are made in earthen pots, which are placed near the door to let out the smoke. The family, and all domestic animals, lie promiscuously in the hut together, dogs excepted, these being placed on the outside as centinels. They live chiefly on rice, bread, fruit, and plain water; and their principal employ is husbandry, or breeding bees or silk worms.

The dress of the men is only a long piece of coarse cloth wrapped round their shoulders, and falling down to their ancles, with a cap of the same. The women wear a piece of woollen stuff that covers them from their shoulders to their knees. They braid their hair, and adorn it with glass beads and fishes teeth. Their arms and legs they ornament with bracelets of ivory, horn, and even wood; and blacken their cheeks, foreheads, arms, legs, &c. The children are suffered to go naked till seven or eight years old, when they cover them with a few rags, rather for ornament than decency. The dress of the chieftain, or chief, of every tribe, is a shirt and cloak all of one piece, hanging from the shoulders half way down the leg, and he wears a cap of fine cloth.

These Moors are of a swarthy complexion, and robust habit of body. The men are active, the women fruitful, and the children healthy. When a youth is disposed to marry, he drives a number of cattle to the hut where the intended bride resides. The girl and her parents, on viewing the stock, immediately consent. All the young women of the village are then invited to the feast. The bride is afterwards placed on a horse belonging to the bridegroom, and led home amidst the shouts of all present. When she arrives at the door of the bridegroom's hut, a mixture of milk and honey is given her to drink, while a nuptial song is sung. She then alights, and, to shew her willingness to perform any duty he may assign her, drives his flock to water and back again. These previous ceremonies being settled, all the company enter the hut, and the evening concludes with the greatest festivity that these poor people are capable of enjoying. Subsequent to the marriage the wife is obliged to wear a veil, and never stir from the hut during a month, and ever after is excluded from all concern in, and knowledge of, public affairs.

The Moors are of a warlike disposition, excellent horsemen, and sometimes give the government great trouble. They are armed with a zagay or short lance, and a scymitar, or broad cutlass. They are great thieves, so that it is dangerous travelling without a marabut, or priest, in company, to whom they shew such respect, that they will not rob any person thus attended.

The Arabians of Algiers are divided into tribes, wander up and down, and profess the same religion, customs, and manners, as those of Arabia.

The Algerines are the most cruel and dangerous pirates of all Africa; base, perfidious, and rapacious to the last degree. No oaths or ties, human or divine, will avail to bind them when their interest interferes. In short, whatever respect they may pretend to pay to their prophet Mahomet, gold is the only true idol which they worship. Gold, that

Insidious bane that makes destruction smooth,
The foe to virtue, liberty, and truth;

Whose

Whose arts the fates of monarchies decide;
 Who gild'th deceit, the darling child of pride.
 How oft, allur'd by thy persuasive charms,
 Have earth's contending powers appear'd in arms!
 What nations brib'd have own'd thy powerful reign!
 For thee what millions plough'd the stormy main,
 Travell'd from pole to pole with ceaseless toil,
 And felt their blood alternate freeze and boil!

Those who reside on the coast are very savage to such as unfortunately fall into their hands by ship-wreck; so that it appears that the Algerines in general are as much strangers to humanity, as they are to an elegant taste or polite behaviour.

They are governed by a bey or dey, who is as absolute as any eastern monarch.

The next in dignity and power is the aga of the janissaries. The other officers of importance are, a secretary of state; 24 chiah bashaws, or colonels subordinate to the aga; 800 bolluk bashaws, or senior captains; and 400 oldak bashaws, or lieutenants. In all these offices the right of seniority is strictly observed in Algiers. There are also purveyors to the army, a body guard to the dey, &c. and the officers of the Turkish forces, who are distinct from the rest.

The general language of Algiers is a compound of Arabic, Moreisco, and the remains of the ancient Phœnician; but all public business is transacted, and records kept, in the Turkish tongue; though most of the Algerines of all denominations understand the *Lingua Franca*.

Though the people in general are fond of the piratical trade, yet they admit free Christians, Jews, Arabians, Moors, &c. to trade in silk, wool, cotton, leather, carpets, &c. in the country. To import gold and silver stuffs, damasks, cloths, spices, tin, iron, brass, lead, quicksilver, linen, cordage, sail cloths, bullets, rice, allum, tartar, cochineal, sugar, soap, raw and spun cotton, aloes, copperas, brazil, logwood, arsenic, vermilion, gum-lack, opium, sulphur, anise and cummin seeds, sarsaparilla, frankincense, galls, honey, paper, combs, cards, dried fruits, &c. And to export ostrich feathers, wax, hides, wool, copper, rugs, silk sashes, embroidered handkerchiefs, dates, and Christian slaves, who, for large ransoms, are allowed to be sent home. But commerce is greatly injured by the oppressions of the government, the suspicions of the merchants, who are always afraid of being deprived of their properties, and the perfidy of the common traders.

The religion of Algiers is Mahometan; and the principal officers who preside over ecclesiastical matters are the mufti, or high priest; the cadi, or ecclesiastical judge; and the grand marabut, or superior of the monastic orders.

The Algerine Turks dress with as much elegance as the inhabitants of Turkey. The free Christians are permitted to dress in the fashions of their respective countries; but the slaves are obliged to wear a coarse grey suit, and a seaman's cap. The shariffs, or those who pretend to be descended from Mahomet, are distinguished by a green turban: but the common Algerines wear shirts, linen drawers, an open woollen jacket with a hood behind, and a black cloak, which reaches to their knees, when they go abroad.

As the revenues of the dey are founded on rapine and plunder, and depend chiefly on casual robberies, they must fluctuate continually, and be at all times uncertain. Justice is venally administered, favour publicly sold, and corruption so general, that it is not looked upon as a vice.

Capital crimes are punished by strangling with a bow string, or hanging on an iron hook. Lesser offences by fine, degradation, or the bastinado. Women detected in adultery are fastened by their necks to a pole, and held under water till they are suffocated. But the most dreadful punishments are inflicted on the Christians and Jews for various offences; such as speaking

against Mahomet, for which the offender must either turn Mahometan, or be impaled alive; changing to the Christian faith again, after having turned Mahometan, for which the punishment is roasting alive, or being thrown from the city walls, when the unhappy sufferer is caught upon sharp pointed hooks, and hangs several days in the most exquisite tortures before he expires. Fomenting a revolt, or killing a Turk, is punished by impaling or burning. Those who attempt to escape from slavery are put to death in the following singular and cruel manner: the criminal is hung naked on a high gallows by two hooks, the one fastened quite through the palm of one hand, and the other through the sole of the opposite foot, where he is left till death relieves him from his cruel sufferings. A Moor convicted of burglary hath his right hand cut off, and fastened about his neck, and then is led through the city on an ass, with his face towards the tail: and persons of distinction, for crimes against the state, are placed between two boards, and sawed asunder.

Besides the grand dewan, there are inferior ones in some of the districts, in all which the process is very concise; the charge is heard, the witnesses sworn, the defence attended to, and sentence immediately given. Christian slaves in Algiers are very numerous, every eighth of whom is the property of the dey. Those who come of good families, and can procure a considerable ransom, and such as have trades, or can make themselves otherwise useful, are treated tolerably well; but such as are of poor parentage, and have not learned to perform any thing which can procure favour, are terribly used.

O slavery! thou fiend of hell's recess,
 Profuse of woes, and pregnant with distress;
 Eternal horrors in thy presence reign,
 And meagre famine leads thy doleful train.
 To each curst load subjection adds more weight,
 And pain is doubled in the vassal's fate.
 O'er nature's sprightly face thou spreadst a gloom,
 And to the grave do'st ev'ry pleasure doom.

In the metropolis none but the principal people are allowed to ride on horseback; others either ride on asses or walk on foot. Women throw a veil over them when they go abroad, so that they are unknown to all but the slaves who attend them.

The principal employment of the women is dressing, lolling on their sofas, bathing, conversing, visiting the tombs of relations, and sauntering in their gardens. The men pass most of their vacant time with the women in their gardens, in conversation, drinking coffee, smoking, &c.

Polygamy is allowed among the Algerines. Marriage contracts are generally left to the interference of friends. When the marriage is agreed upon the bridegroom sends a present to the bride, and gratifies her relations with a feast and musical entertainment. The marriage ceremony is concluded with another entertainment.

The Algerines are very inexpert in the medical art. After death, the corpse being washed and clad in a shirt, drawers, silk robe and turban, it is laid in a kind of square coffin, and carried on mens shoulders by means of poles to the place of interment, attended by relations and friends.

Mourning is expressed by the women going veiled for some days, and the men wearing their beards for a month. During three days after the funeral the nearest relations visit the tomb, distribute alms to the poor, and suffer no fire to be lighted in their houses. The better sort have epitaphs on their tomb stones.

The Algerines have an armament military and naval, and are supplied with warlike implements and stores by the Europeans.

The Algerine sailors are very filthy, and pretend to despise the nicety found in most of the vessels belonging to the Christians.

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View of the **CITY of TUNIS the CAPITAL of that KINGDOM**
on the **COAST of BARBARY.**



View of the **CITY of ALGIERS the CAPITAL of that KINGDOM**
on the **COAST of BARBARY.**

HISTORY OF ALGIERS.

THE Algerines were successively subject to the Romans, Vandals, Greeks, and Arabs, till the year 1051, when they were brought under the government of divers rulers from their own tribes. But these falling out among themselves, Ferdinand V. king of Arragon, took advantage of their civil dissensions, sent a powerful armament to Algiers, and rendered it tributary to Spain.

This subjection continued till the death of Ferdinand, which happened in 1516, when the famous Barbarossa, on pretence of undertaking their deliverance from the Spanish yoke, caused himself to be proclaimed sovereign, and became formidable not only to the neighbouring states, but also to the Europeans, till he was at length opposed by the emperor Charles V. and lost his life in an action with the Spaniards and Arabs. His successor, of the same name, as the most effectual barrier against his numerous enemies, proposed to cede the kingdom of Algiers to the Grand Seignior, Selim I. on condition that he should rule it as viceroy, and be assisted with some Turkish forces. Selim complied with the proposal, in consequence of which Barbarossa laid siege to the Spanish fort, took it by storm, repaired it, put a garrison in it, and rendered Algiers more secure than it had ever been before. The Algerines, emboldened by this success, making depredations on the territories on the coast belonging to the Spaniards, Charles the Fifth failed with a formidable armament, landed his forces, and built a fort on an eminence, which still goes by the name of the Emperor's Fort. He then closely invested the city, and turned the course of the stream that supplied it with water, which greatly distressed the inhabitants, who nevertheless held out, till the emperor was obliged to raise the siege, after sustaining a great loss of ships and men.

Since the miscarriage of Charles V. the kingdom of Algiers continued a province of the Grand Seignior's, governed by a viceroy of his nomination. These viceroys abusing their power, and oppressing the people in general, and the soldiery in particular, the latter obtained permission from the Porte to chuse a dey out of the troops, as a check upon the bashaw or viceroy, and to superintend the distribution of the money raised for their payment, as well as several other public affairs. The power of the deys greatly increasing in process of time, they are now become independent sovereigns, and are, properly speaking, only allies of the Ottoman Porte.

In 1682 the Algerines entered into a treaty of alliance with England; and that year and the following hostilities were carried on between the Algerines and French, attended with horrid massacres on both sides, till at length a peace was concluded between them.

The treaty between the English and Algerines was often broke and often renewed, from the time of its commencement, for several years, as the latter could never refrain from their piratical practices. They were at length, however, brought to reason, and a treaty was signed at Algiers in 1700, comprising articles for the security of the vessels of Great Britain and all its dependencies.

The Spaniards attacked Algiers with a formidable armament in 1775, but failed in their design, with the loss of about 800 killed, and 2000 wounded.

SECTION VI.

TUNIS.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Soil, Productions, Rivers, Islands, Capes, Gulphs, Mountains, &c.

TUNIS is part of the country formerly belonging to the republic of Carthage, and exhibits a melancholy proof of the fleeting nature of human grandeur.

No. 38.

deur, having scarcely a ruin that can mark out the place of the once celebrated Carthage. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Biledulgerid, on the east by Tripoli, and on the west by Algiers; being 220 miles in length, and 170 in breadth; and lies between 33 deg. 30 min. and 37 deg. 12 min. north lat. and between 8 deg. and 11 deg. 20 min. east longitude.

The air of Tunis is clear, pure, and healthy. The soil in many places is barren, except the western parts, where it is well watered. Some of the vallies produce corn, oil, grapes, and various fruits in abundance. The country is full of mulberry trees. The animals, &c. are the same as in Algiers.

This kingdom is divided into eight districts, viz. Tunis Proper; Byrsa, or Carthage and Goletta; El-Medea; Sufa; Kayr-wan, or Cairvan; Hammet; Bizerta, and Porto Farino. But these are included in two grand circuits, which the dey makes annually, accompanied by his principal attendants.

The inland towns have, in general, been destroyed by the Arabians, who will not suffer them to be rebuilt, that their rambles may not be impeded, or their depredations prevented. The principal cities and towns are, therefore, on the sea-coast, but they are not above 14 in number, small of extent, and most of them but thinly inhabited. The other places, either near the coast, or in the interior part of the country, are so inconsiderable as not to merit mentioning.

To describe the country, it will be most convenient to mention the dey's summer and winter circuits. In summer the dey takes the northern circuit, which is by far the most agreeable, as he then passes through the pleasant, fertile, and populous places; and in the winter he pursues his journey through the other parts of his dominions.

The principal rivers are the Zaine, which separates the Tunisian from the Algerine dominions; the Megerda, or Megerada; the Miliana, which forms the Bay of Tunis; and the Gabbs, or Triton of the ancients.

There are a few islands belonging to this state, viz. a small one in the river Zaine, rented by the Genoese; Cape Negro Island, rented by the French African company; the Jalta, and the islands of Cani, remarkable only for the dangerous shoals near them. The principal capes are Cape Serra, 15 miles from Cape Negro; the Three Brothers, which are three rocky capes near the continent; Cape Bianca, or the White Cape, famed for being the place where Scipio first landed in Africa; Cape Zibeed, celebrated for the great quantities of raisins made upon it; and Cape Bon, or the Promontory of Hercules.

The principal gulphs of this kingdom are those of Bizerta and Tunis.

The most remarkable mountains are the Zowaan, which is very high, and gives name to a town situated at its foot, the inhabitants of which are particularly skilled in dying scarlet caps, and bleaching linen; the Gueslet, the Nufura, and the Bene-te-fren.

Description of Tunis, the Metropolis of the Kingdom, Inhabitants, Customs, &c.

TUNIS is situated at about the distance of 300 miles from Algiers. This capital is unhealthy, from the marshes and lakes that surround it, and the deficiency of fresh water. The former inconvenience the inhabitants remedy as much as possible, by burning prodigious quantities of aromatic woods and herbs; and the latter by procuring sweet water from the springs of Bardo, at about a mile distance, and catching rain water in large reservoirs.

The city of Tunis is about three miles in circumference, exclusive of the suburbs, which are not very large; the main streets are capacious, but the lanes very narrow. The houses, which are built of stone, are but one story high, and have flat roofs. There are but few handsome buildings, the great mosque and bey's palace

palace excepted. In the treasury chamber, besides other valuable articles, the book containing the Tunisian code of laws is kept. The grand mosque is remarkable for its size and magnificent tower. The city has five gates; and without the walls are the Turkish sepulchres, which have an agreeable look from the intermixture of marble tombs and flower plats.

The staple commodities here are woollen and linen, in which articles the manufacturers excel all others in Barbary. The colleges and academies are numerous and large, the janissaries barracks spacious, the custom-house tolerably handsome, and the exchange for the merchants very convenient. The dock is tolerable, and the arsenal pretty well stored with materials for the building of galleys.

Tunis is defended by a strong castle, erected on an eminence, by the fort of Coletta, and by a fortress built on an island in the neighbouring lake. The inhabitants of Tunis are a mixture of Turks, Moors, Arabians, Jews, and Christians of various nations; but their general character does them singular honour, as they are reputed to be more polite, more kind to their slaves, and much less haughty, insolent, and mercenary, than most of the other inhabitants of Barbary. In fine, the generality of them prefer the fruits of honest industry to unlawful plunder, and seek wealth from commerce rather than from plunder.

The women are remarkable for their beauty and the delicacy of their complexions. The men are sun-burnt, but tall and well shaped. Both sexes are clean in their persons, and neat in their dresses, use perfumes very much, and bathe frequently. The women, when they go abroad, are veiled; but at home they are permitted to be seen by, and converse with strangers.

The inhabitants have plenty of palms, figs, dates, citrons, lemons, olives, &c. but feel a great scarcity of corn, and are not even secure of what little they are able to raise; for it is no uncommon thing, in harvest time, for the Arabs to come suddenly upon the husbandmen, and plunder the whole territory of all the ripe grain. The rich are, however, supplied by commercial means with wheat, with which they make fine cakes, and an excellent kind of vermicelli. The poor are obliged to content themselves with barley, and even that they cannot at all times procure; but when they are so happy as to obtain a little, they regale themselves by making it into a dumpling, which they eat raw, only dipping it into a little oil and vinegar, or plain water, if those are not to be got. They have, however, plenty of honey and fruits, but seldom eat meat, except upon festivals, or some very singular occasion.

Cities, Towns, Villages, &c. of the Kingdom of Tunis.

NABEL is a flourishing town, situated in a low ground, at about a mile and a half from the sea shore, and nine miles from Tunis. It is famous for potatoes.

Marfa, or El-Merfa, which implies a haven, is situated where the port of ancient Carthage stood. It contains a magnificent mosque, a capacious college, about 800 houses, and several palaces, built by the most considerable Tunisiens for pleasure, as the territory is exceeding agreeable and fertile. This pleasant district was once the seat of the celebrated city of Carthage, the center of commerce, mistress of the sea, and rival of imperial Rome, when that city was in its most flourishing state.

Carthage stood on a gulph in a peninsula of between 40 and 50 miles in circuit. In the center of the city was the citadel, called Byrsa, on the summit of which was a temple dedicated to Æsculapius. On the land side the city was defended by a very high triple wall, flanked with towers, 480 feet distant from each other. The towers, walls, &c. contained stables, store-houses, and barracks for 20,000 foot, 4000 horse, and 300 elephants, with the requisite food, fodder, &c. which, though lodged within the walls, did not in the least incommode the trading part of the inhabitants.

Carthage had two harbours, which communicated with each other, and had only one common entrance of 70 feet in breadth. The one was for merchant ships, and the other for ships of war. The latter harbour, and the island of Cothon in the midst of it, had many magnificent warehouses, full of stores, appertaining to them.

A modern author says, "The number of inhabitants of this city (Carthage) at the beginning of the third Punic war was 700,000; a prodigious number, considering the many terrible blows received from the Romans during the first and second Punic wars, as well as from their own mercenaries betwixt these wars, and in their destructive broils with Massinissa. The force they could bring into the field, as well as their power by sea, was very formidable; those under Hamilcar against Glon consisting of 300,000 men, and the fleet of more than 2000 ships of war, and 3000 transports."

At this time, the Roman historians inform us, that the city was 23 miles in circuit, and that the temple of Apollo was lined with plates of gold, and the image of that fabulous deity was of massy gold; but these treasures, as well as many other valuable articles, became the plunder of the Romans when Scipio sacked the city.

It may not be improper to observe, that the Carthaginians were addicted to the most gross idolatry, and their sacrifices were replete with the most horrid cruelties. Diodorus Siculus informs us, that their principal deity was Chronus, the Saturn of the Romans, to whom they sacrificed the children of the best families, as a certain law enjoined them to offer up none but such as were nobly born. At length, however, they substituted the children of slaves, prisoners, &c. to gratify their supposed bloody idol, till Agathocles made war upon them, and reduced them to the utmost extremity; when fancying that their misfortunes were owing to the improper offerings made to Chronus, they barbarously sacrificed 200 well descended children: but their absurd cruelty availed them nothing, for their army was soon after totally defeated. This so surprised them, that they imagined the sacrifice was not sufficiently bloody, when, influenced by the same ridiculous idea, 300 of the principal citizens voluntarily offered up their lives as oblations to the sanguinary idol. Their cruel sacrifices were, however, useless, for their misfortunes still continued to increase.

This idol of the Carthaginians is frequently mentioned in the sacred writings under the name of *Molech*; and these very execrable sacrifices are strictly forbidden, particularly in the following passages: *Leviticus xviii. 21. And thou shalt not let any of thy seed pass through the fire to Molech, neither shalt thou profane the name of thy God: I am the LORD.* *Leviticus xx. 2. Again, thou shalt say to the children of Israel, Whosoever he be of the children of Israel, or of the strangers that sojourn in Israel, that giveth any of his seed unto Molech, he shall surely be put to death; the people of the land shall stone him with stones.* *2 Kings, xxiii. 10. And he defiled Topheth, which is in the valley of the children of Hinnom, that no man might make his son or his daughter to pass through the fire to Molech.* *Psalms cvi. 38. And shed innocent blood, even the blood of their sons and of their daughters, whom they sacrificed unto the idols of Canaan: and the land was polluted with blood.*

From the abominable practice of sacrificing children to Chronus, or Saturn, the fable of Saturn's devouring his children originated. But the custom was so shocking to humanity, that the Roman poets and fabulists thought proper to drop the literal meaning for an allegorical one; and changing, therefore, the mythological Saturn into Time, the idea appeared without any horror annexed to it; and they represented thereby a pleasing and instructive fable; for Saturn was said to consume all things, devour his own children, and vomit them up again. This alludes to Time, which consumes all things that it produces, till they are revived, and, as it were, again renewed: thus days, months, and

and years are the children of Time, which he constantly devours and re-produces. Sometimes Saturn is painted between two boys and two girls, implying, that as parents are surrounded by their children, Time is encompassed by the four seasons of the year. In his left hand is a scythe, with which he mows down all things. He holds an hour-glass in his hand, to express the vicissitudes of life.

The strange vicissitudes of human fate,
Still altering, never in a steady state;
Good after ill, and after pain delight,
Alternate, like the scenes of day and night.
Since ev'ry man who lives is born to die,
And none can boast sincere felicity,
With equal minds what happens let us bear,
Nor joy, nor grief, too much beyond our care:
Like pilgrims, to th' appointed place we tend;
The world's an inn, and death the journey's end.
Ev'n kings but play, and when their part is done,
Some other, worse, or better, mount the throne.

And in his right hand he holds a serpent, twisted into a circular form, with the tail in its mouth to denote eternity, which revolves into itself; and is

A gulph, whose large extent no bounds engage,
A still beginning, never ending age.
Eternity, that boundless race,
Which Time himself can never run,
(Swift as he flies with an unwearied pace,)
Which, when ten thousand thousand years are done,
Is still the same, and still to be begun.

The inhuman custom of sacrificing children to idols did not, however, cease with the destruction of Carthage, but continued among the Africans till the time of Tiberius Cæsar, emperor of Rome, who was so shocked at the horrid practice, that he not only prohibited it under severe penalties, but destroyed the idols, and hanged the priests.

The extensive, opulent, and populous city of Carthage was finally destroyed by Scipio Æmilianus, in the third year of the 158th Olympiad, in the year of the world 3857, and 147 years before Christ; and no vestiges of it remain at present, except some fragments of the noble reservoirs which received into the city fresh water for the use of the inhabitants, and the ruins of the expensive aqueducts, by which the water was conveyed. The latter reach above 30 miles in the country, are near 12 yards over, finely arched, and in most places faced with stone, or coated with a strong cement.

There are divers other cities, towns, and villages, in the kingdom of Tunis, all of which are greatly decayed: but some few are estimated for natural productions, commerce, baths, and other valuable considerations. Among these are Arradez, Sonfa or Sufa, Kayrwan or Carvan, Hamamel, Bizerta, Porto Farino, Bayjah Tuberbo or Urbs, &c. The most remarkable of these are the following:

Sonfa, or Sufa, the capital of the province of the same name, is one of the most considerable cities in the kingdom. It has a flourishing trade for oil, linen, wax, honey, and pickled fish. The town is situated on a high rock, behind which runs an extensive plain country, fertile in barley, figs, olives, fruit, and pasturage. Though it hath greatly fallen from its pristine grandeur, it is still wealthy and populous, and the inhabitants are polite and courteous to strangers. A Turkish bashaw resides here. The superior people are merchants, warehousemen, and mechanics; the lower class are husbandmen, herdsmen, and potters. It is divided into the upper and lower city, has a good port, and pays 12,000ducats to the governor of the province.

Kayrwan, or Carvan, is the capital of a province of the same name; and what is singular, it may be deemed one of the most populous and flourishing towns in the kingdom, though situated in a barren desert, destitute of fresh water, and without the least article which can sustain life, except what is brought in carts from

several miles distance. It is 24 miles from Sonfa, and has, about half a mile from the town, a reservoir and a pond for the reception of rain water: the inhabitants are supplied from the first, and the castle from the last. The waters of both, but more particularly the latter, are unwholesome, and occasion many disorders, not only in the beasts, but in the human species.

A late author says, from good authority, "This city was rebuilt by Hukba, generalissimo of Ottoman, or Hatman's forces, which last was the successor of Mahomet III. caliph of Damascus, in the year 652, and had sent him from Arabia into those parts, to make what conquests he could in them. Hukba, having landed his forces in some of the neighbouring ports, made choice of this barren and desolate spot for the place of their rendezvous, and of the ruined city for his retreat, which he accordingly caused to be surrounded with lofty and strong brick walls, flanked with stately towers; and, among other noble edifices, built a most magnificent mosque, supported by an incredible number of stately columns of fine granite, two of which were of so exquisite and lively a red, bespangled all over with little white spots like the porphyry, that their price was reckoned inestimable, and the whole structure the most magnificent in all Africa. It had likewise a very considerable revenue and endowments, and the title and privilege of a head metropolis, as being the first Mahometan mosque built in this part of the world, upon which account it is likewise become the burying-place of the Tunisian monarchs; and not only they, but all the grandees and wealthy men of the kingdom, are ambitious of having their remains deposited in it, from a superstitious notion, that the prayers of the head pontiff and successor of Mahomet, will procure them a plenary pardon of their sins, and send them by the nearest way into paradise. The very city itself is held so sacred among them, that those great personages usually pull off their shoes before they enter it, and cause some stately chapels and oratories to be erected over the graves of their dead relations; and sometimes settle a yearly sum upon them, not only to keep them in repair, but likewise to retain a number of idle priests and monks to resort thither at proper times. It is most probably upon the account of this superstitious concourse, and vast donatives, that this city is still so thriving, notwithstanding the dearth and scarcity of provisions."

Hamamel is a small but opulent city, situated upon a promontory near the sea, and so well secured on the land side by rugged and inaccessible rocks, that a very small expence would render it totally impregnable. It is 51 miles from Tunis by land, and 60 leagues by sea.

Bizerta is situated upon a canal between a lake of the same name and the sea, eight miles from Cape Blanco, and ten miles from Tunis. It is well fortified, particularly on the side nearest the sea, and contains two towers to defend the haven, a considerable magazine, and two large prisons for slaves. It has plenty of fresh water, and is well supplied with fish. Eight inconsiderable villages belong to the governor of this place, whose inhabitants, as well as those of Bizerta itself, are miserably poor, though the territory is pretty fertile. Their only dress is a coarse cloth wrapped round their bodies, and another about their heads in lieu of a turban. They are, however, admirable horsemen, but do not shoe their horses, or use either bridles or saddles.

The Bizertines are deemed by all travellers the most superstitious people in the kingdom of Tunis, and by some in all Barbary. They will not undertake the most trivial affair without hanging a great number of amulets or charms about them; and if they travel, they load their horses with the same kind of supposed securities, which are only pieces of parchment or paper inscribed with strange characters, and sewed in leather or silk.

Porto Farino is much fallen from its ancient splendor, and is now only remarkable for its fine cotton, and where the Tunisian navy is kept. The town stands between the Cape of Bizerta and the Cape of Carthage, the promontory of Apollo: it is called by the natives

Garet-Mailah, or the Cave of Salt, from the salt-works in the vicinity. Lewis, king of France, commonly called St. Lewis, died here in his expedition to the Holy Land.

Bayjah, or Baia, is the chief mart in the kingdom for corn, which the neighbouring territory produces in such plenty, that the Tunisians proverbially say, *if they had but such another market town, corn would be as cheap as sand all over the kingdom.* This town, which is about 30 miles from the northern coast, and 108 W. S. W. from Tunis, is surrounded by a wall, and defended by a citadel.

Tuberbo, or Urbs, is 180 miles south of Tunis. It has a castle with some cannon, and a garrison, and is inhabited by Andalusian Moors. Many vestiges of its former splendor are here found: and Maham Bey, from the ruins of a magnificent theatre, caused a very lofty bridge, or rather dam, to be erected, in order to raise water from the river Mejerda sufficiently high to water a beautiful plantation of oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, nectarines, peaches, apricots, dates, figs, and other fruit-trees, which were set in distinct spots, that they might grow without intermixture with each other. Between the castle and the town a chrysaline stream of fresh water ran through an alabaster conduit, and turned several mills in its course; but this valuable work is now almost ruined.

Along some part of the coast of this kingdom the sand banks are very dangerous, as ships which approach too near are drawn in by the vortex, and often lost.

There are hot springs in many parts of the country. There is a mountain of salt, named Jibbel Hadileffa, which is as hard as a rock, of a dark red colour, and bitter; but when it is washed from the precipices by the rains, it loses its bitterness, and becomes soft and white. Besides this, there are some small rocks of a blueish cast, the salt of which is much admired, and sells at a high price.

Amongst the artificial curiosities in this kingdom is a threefold mosaic pavement, which is a noble piece of workmanship, exhibiting a great number of objects in the animal and vegetable creation, beautifully diversified, finely variegated with the most admirable colours, and wrought with a symmetry that is truly astonishing. This place is called Seedy-Doude, or the Sanctuary of David. Another piece is the amphitheatre of Jemine, or rather its fragment, which consists of 64 arches, and four orders of columns; but they have suffered considerably from the Arabs, and from one of the beys, who ordered four of the arches to be blown up. There are also the remains of the triumphal arches of Spialta, which greatly evince their ancient magnificence; and a mausoleum near Hamamel, which is an admirable building, in the form of a cylinder, vaulted beneath, and 60 feet in diameter.

Government, Revenues, Forces, Religion, Customs, &c.

THE bey of Tunis is supreme, but chosen by the divan, and under the protection of the Ottoman Porte, which keeps a bashaw here, but his power is so curtailed, that he may be deemed a mere cypher.

The beys of Tunis, through motives of fear, keep up a good correspondence with their neighbours of Algiers and Tripoli, and, from policy, aim to cultivate a friendship with the subjects of England and France; though they are at perpetual variance with the Spaniards, Sardinians, Venetians, Maltese, the subjects of the Ecclesiastical State, &c.

The annual revenues of the kingdom amount to 100,000*l.* and the forces to about 5000 men in peace, and 40,000 in war.

Their maritime power is much less than what might be imagined, considering their admirable situation. Their capital ships are seldom above four in number, the largest carrying only 40 guns. Besides which they have about 30 galliots of various burthens, that are manned with from 20 to 120 men each, who are rene-

gades, Turks, and Couloglies, or sons of married soldiers. The command is, however, always given to renegades; at least very few instances have been known to the contrary. They generally cruise twice a year, and are furnished with biscuit, butter, oil, and vinegar, by the bey. The galliots are fitted out by private persons, who pay a certain stipulated quota of whatever they acquire to the bey. The mercantile vessels are very numerous, and the merchants pursue traffic with great avidity.

When a ship brings in a prize, the hull of the vessel, and half the cargo, after all expences are deducted, belong to the bey, and the remainder is divided between the captain and the ship's company.

During the whole time that a Christian man of war is in the road, the consul, and the merchants of the nation to which it belongs, keep colours flying on the tops of their houses. If a slave escapes, and gets on board a man of war, the bey cannot reclaim him; on which account it is usual, as soon as a ship of force appears in the road, to keep all the Christian slaves very close confined, and abridge them of the liberty otherwise allowed them till their departure; previous to which the bey sends to the commander a present of oxen, sheep, poultry, and other refreshments.

The Tunisians export corn, oil, wax, wool, hides, Morocco leather, beans, lentils, &c. and import Spanish wool, Languedoc cloth, pepper, sugar, vermilion, cloves, wine, brandy, hardware, iron, steel, paper, gold and silver tissue, damasks, silk and woollen stuffs, &c. They likewise trade for a variety of articles to Egypt, Arabia, the Levant, and the neighbouring piratical states.

The English, French, Dutch, Genoese, and Germans, have their consuls in Tunis, who are treated with great respect.

All public writings are in the Arabic language, which is here much corrupted from its purity and elegance; but commerce is carried on in that jargon of tongues known by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

Jews are very numerous in this kingdom: it is affirmed that there are upwards of 10,000 in Tunis only: but as they are very much addicted to cheat all with whom they deal, keep false weights and measures, make fraudulent bankruptcies, and adulterate most articles in which they trade, the laws are particularly levelled against them, and they are, when detected, more severely punished than any other foreigners.

The same religion, manners, and customs prevail here as in Algiers, except in the following instance: If a renegado should turn Christian again, they wrap him up in a cloth dipped in pitch, and burn him; or else pile stones, mud, mortar, &c. all round him, and having walled in all but his head, they rub that over with honey, which attracts wasps and other insects, that torment the poor wretch with their stings till he expires, which sometimes does not happen for several days. If a slave is caught in attempting to escape, or murders his patron, his limbs are all broken, and then he is fastened to a horse's tail, and dragged through the streets till he dies.

HISTORY OF TUNIS.

THE first monarch of Tunis, whose transactions are worthy of record, was Abu Perez, who, possessing great wealth and power, assumed the title of king of Africa, strengthened and embellished Tunis, and gave it the name of the metropolis of Africa, in the year 1294. Anarchy and confusion prevailed during the reigns of several of his successors, of which the famous Barbarossa before mentioned availed himself, by fitting out a strong armament, and making himself master of several towns, forts, &c. of the kingdom of Tunis. This so terrified Muley Hassan, the reigning monarch, that he quitted his dominions, and applied for succour to the emperor Charles V.

That

That prince undertook his defence, fitted out a powerful armament, totally vanquished the haughty and perfidious Barbarossa, and re-established Muley Hassan upon his throne, under conditions honourable to himself, and advantageous to the Christian cause.

Barbarossa, however, in process of time, renewed his attacks upon Tunis; so that Muley Hassan went again to Europe to apply for succours; and, during his absence, his son Hamida revolted against him, and raised a dangerous commotion at home. Hassan, apprised of this revolution, returned home with about 2000 European forces; but his son defeated him, took him prisoner, and deprived him of his sight. Hamida had been so successful in forming alliances with the Arabian and Moorish chiefs, that he recovered Tunis, from which he had been driven by Abdelmelech, Hassan's brother, and reigned without molestation till the year 1570, when Hali, bashaw of Algiers, dispossessed him of it.

The unfortunate Hassan, during this interval, had found means to make another voyage to Europe, and remained in the emperor's court till that monarch had prepared a powerful armament to drive Barbarossa, and other formidable pirates, from the places they possessed on the Barbary coast. At length the grand imperial fleet arrived on the coast of Africa, with the unfortunate Hassan, old and blind: but the wretched monarch soon after died of a fever in the Christian camp.

The European admiral soon made himself master of most places on the sea coast; but the emperor ordering them all to be evacuated, the Goletta excepted, having occasion for his troops in Europe, Hali, the Turk, possessed himself of Tunis: but the bashaw Sinan made a total conquest of the kingdom, in the reign of the Grand Signior Selim II. and destroyed all the Christians but fourteen, whom he sent in chains to Constantinople. Having brought the whole beneath the Ottoman yoke, he appointed for its government a bashaw or viceroy, a divan, several governors or beys over the different provinces, 4000 janissaries, and a number of garrisons in the different cities, towns, and fortresses. This revolution terminated the splendor of the kings of Tunis in 1574, after 280 years continuance from its first establishment by Abu-Ferez.

Tunis now began to be governed by deys chosen by the divan; but the state was in such confusion, the jealousies were so great, the intrigues so various, and new deys so frequently elected, that in the space of 120 years no less than 23 reigned, all of whom, five excepted, were either dethroned or murdered.

During the reigns of the several deys, Tunis was involved in anarchy and confusion, till Hassan-Ben-Hali, a political and formidable prince, freed it from a dependence on the Porte, rendered himself so powerful as to stand in no awe of his neighbours the Algerines and Tripolitans, restrained his subjects from acts of piracy, and concluded commercial treaties with the Christian powers, particularly the Dutch and English, about the close of the last century, since which nothing of importance has occurred.

SECTION VII.

T R I P O L I.

TRIPOLI was once the richest, most populous and opulent, of all the states on the coast of Barbary, but it is now greatly reduced. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Zaara or the Desert, on the east by Barca, and on the west by Tunis and Biledulgerid. It extends along the coast about 700 miles, that is from 10 deg. 13 min. to 25 deg. 27 min. east longitude.

The air is clear, but less healthy than that of Tunis. The soil is the richest in Barbary; and the vallies, where cultivated, produce large quantities of corn, grapes, olives, dates, and the various fruits natural to warm climates. The animals are the same as those of Algiers.

No. 38.

The capital of the kingdom is Tripoli, which, tho' small, is populous. It is situated on a sandy soil near the margin of the sea: strong walls, defended by formidable ramparts, and flanked by pyramidal towers, surround it. Here are but two gates; the north gate towards the sea, and the south gate towards the country; and the whole city forms the figure of a crescent, the concave part of which encloses the haven. At the extreme points of the harbour, which is very commodious, are some military works: those to the east are in bad condition; but on the westward there is a strong castle, well fortified. The houses in general are very mean, and low built, and the streets narrow and crooked. But there are some remaining monuments of magnificence which seem to confirm the prevailing opinion of the inhabitants, that it was once remarkable for the splendor of many of its public buildings.

The deficiency of fresh water, and great sterility with respect to grain, under which this city labours, are both supposed to have been occasioned by the encroachments of the sea, which has frequently been known to overflow the neighbouring territory to a very considerable distance; so that through the injurious effects of these inundations, the inhabitants of Tripoli could not subsist upon the produce of their country, without the additional provisions continually brought in by their piratical vessels.

The environs abound with the country houses of the principal inhabitants, the gardens belonging to which are usually managed by the Christian slaves, who are, however, at night all confined in a single bagnio or gaol in the city itself.

Tripoli is frequently visited by the plague, on which account the Franciscans, who are settled here, have, besides their church and convent, an hospital, in which they administer relief to the Tripolines, as well as those of their own persuasion.

The city is far less considerable than Algiers, and not comparable to Tunis. The government is the same with that of the rest of the cities of Africa. The Moors are in as little credit here as at Algiers. The Nazarene renegadoes enjoy by far the greatest share of authority of any sect of people in the country, and fill the chief employments. Of all the corsairs of Barbary, none are less cruel, though none are so much addicted to theft, as the people of Tripoli.

Capez, or Yabs, as the Moors call it, is situated on the ancient river Triton, to which the moderns have given the same name as the town. Being the frontier town between Tripoli and Tunis, it is large, and well fortified; and in its neighbourhood are found the ruins of the ancient city called by the Romans Tacapa. Capez, however, is but poor, and thinly inhabited by fishermen, and a few husbandmen, the latter of which cultivate a small quantity of barley, a considerable number of palm-trees, and a root which resembles a potatoe. The natives are as black as negroes, and so poor, that they look upon a few pecks of barley, and half a dozen of palm-trees, as a considerable fortune. It is proper to observe, that the river Capez rises in a sandy desert, and disembogues itself into the Mediterranean; hence the waters are so hot, that they cannot be drank till they have been put into some cool place for about the space of two hours.

El-Hammah was remarkable for its Roman walls, its hot sulphurous springs, the aqueducts by which they were conveyed, and of which scarce any vestiges remain. The inhabitants are a few fishermen, who are pirates when occasion offers; and some husbandmen, who are thieves at all opportunities.

Zoara, or, as it is commonly called, Zares, is supposed to be the ancient Pisidau, being situated on the sea coast, near 19 miles from the Island of Zarbie: it is surrounded by an old wall almost in ruins. The inhabitants, who are but few in number, live by fishing, and burning quick-lime and pot-ash, or, when opportunity serves, by piracy.

These towns, which are all situated on the western coast of the Gulf of Sidra, are the best in the country; those on the eastern side, and within the gulf, are in a wretched condition indeed, and present a dreadful picture of the devastations of time.

Nature knows

No steadfast station, but on ebbs or flows;
 Ever in motion she destroys her old,
 And casts new figures in another mould;
 Ev'n times are in perpetual flux, and run
 Like rivers from their fountains rolling on;
 For time no more than streams is at a stay;
 The flying hour is ever on her way;
 And as the fountain still supplies her store,
 The wave behind impels the wave before:
 Thus in successive course the minutes run,
 And urge their predecessor minutes on;
 Still moving, ever new, for former things
 Are set aside, like abdicated kings;
 And ev'ry moment alters what is done,
 And innovates some act till then unknown.
 Time is th' effect of motion, born a twin,
 And with the world did equally begin:
 Time like a stream that hastens from the shore,
 Flies to an ocean, where 'tis known no more:
 All must be swallow'd in this endless deep,
 And motion rest in everlasting sleep.

These parts of Africa have been subject to a great variety of revolutions from the various inundations of Goths, Vandals, Arabs, Mahometans, &c. who have over-run the country at different times; to which may be added the depredations of the Europeans, and tyranny of the government. The island of Malta is a perpetual thorn in the sides of the piratical states, particularly to those of Tripoli and Tunis, from the vicinity of its situation; and the Maltese knights merit the thanks of all commercial nations, for having so greatly circumscribed the power, and restrained the piracies of the Barbary rovers.

After the Moors were driven out of Andalusia in Spain, they built the town of Derne on the western side of the gulph of Sidra, which, indeed, is the only place worth mentioning in the district of that name. It is situated at the distance of about half a mile from the sea, and is better supplied with sweet water than most of the towns in the Tripoline territories: nevertheless the inhabitants are few in number, and wretchedly poor in circumstances. The most remarkable produce is great quantities of admirable honey, the delicacy of which is occasioned by the bees feeding upon a kind of shrub peculiar to this country, that bears a fragrant yellow flower, and blossoms all the year.

The district of Mesratata was antiently very flourishing, but at present is much reduced.

The beys of Tripoli are not mere nominal vassals to the Turkish government, like those of Algiers and Tunis, but are obliged to pay a considerable tribute, which puts them under the necessity of tyrannizing over the poor, and reducing them to the utmost indigence and misery, in order to obtain a sufficient sum to discharge their quota.

The revenues are raised by an impost on the corsairs, which are usually about eight in number, by a tax on commercial imports and exports, and by a subsidy which the Jews are obliged to furnish. The bey likewise taxes the wild Arabs and inland Moors; but these frequently refuse to pay the tribute, when he is obliged to send his flying camp of janissaries among them to reduce them to obedience: but neither the Porte, or the Turkish bassa, trouble themselves about the government, provided the bey pays with punctuality his stipulated tribute to the first, and gratifies the avaricious cravings of the last.

The principal article of commerce is in slaves, which are either taken by the corsairs at sea, or stolen by the wild Arabs and Moors from the neighbouring states.

Both are, however, usually sent to Turkey, and sold there at the best market, unless they imagine that they belong to a distinguished family, when they are kept in expectation of a considerable ransom.

Besides the above, the only article of trade worth mentioning is the sale of ashes, which are disposed of to the Europeans for the purposes of making soap and glass. It is to be observed of this regency, that with respect to commerce and treaties, the people are much greater observers of their word, and perform their promises with more punctuality, than any of their piratical neighbours.

Concise History of Tripoli.

TRIPOLI, for a succession of years, devolved from power to power, having been subdued by the Vandals, Saracens, and the sovereigns of Morocco and Tunis. It at length fell into the hands of the Turks, and the Grand Seignior deputed a bassa to govern it.

The two most remarkable transactions relative to this kingdom are the bombardment of the capital by the French in the reign of Lewis XIV. and the treaty of peace and commerce between the Tripolitans and English in 1716.

The first of these occurrences happened in consequence of the Tripolitans having taken a ship under French colours, and detained several French subjects in a state of slavery. This occasioned Lewis XIV. to order his officers to make reprisals upon the vessels of Tripoli wherever they met them. These orders were strictly obeyed by the French captains; in particular, Monsieur d'Anfreville attacked six vessels of Tripoli near Cape Sapienza. Three of the corsairs fled in the beginning of the engagement, and the other three, after having been much shattered in the fight, took refuge in the island of Chios. The French commodore Monsieur du Quesne, who commanded in the Levant, having intelligence thereof, immediately proceeded to block them up with seven ships of war: but, previous to the commencement of hostilities, he sent a message to the governor aga to the following purport: "That he was in perfect amity with the Chians, and the Porte of Constantinople, but came in search of some Tripolitan pirates, who, contrary to the most solemn treaties, had committed the most outrageous depredations on the subjects of France, and therefore hoped that the aga would not protect such infamous robbers." The aga, however, refused to give up the pirates, which so exasperated the French commodore, that he began immediately to bombard the place, against which he threw upwards of 7000 bombs, made a dreadful havoc both of the houses and Tripolitan ships, and killed a great number of the people; but he could not enter the port on account of a strong flaccado the Tripolitans had contrived to lay in his way. The court of Constantinople thought proper to interfere, in order to get matters adjusted, when at length it was agreed between the grand vizir and the Gallic ambassador, that matters should be compromised, and settled according to articles agreed upon by both parties.

The treaty of Peace and Commerce calculated, in every instance, to secure the lives and properties of the subjects of his Britannic majesty, was concluded and ratified by the English admiral Baker on the one hand, and the proper officers of Tripoli on the other, in the month of July 1716.

SECTION VIII.

B A R C A.

THIS inhospitable country, which is a mere desert, extends 40 miles from north to south, and 300 from east to west; comprizing those districts which the ancients termed Marmarica and Cyrenaica.

It is stiled, by the few Arabs who inhabit it, Cey-rart,

part Barka, or the Desert of Whirlwinds and Hurricanes. The territory about the towns and villages produce a scanty pittance of corn, millet and maize; all other parts of this wretched region are totally barren, and the whole labours under a great scarcity of water. Small as the quantity of grain is, the poor people are under the necessity of bartering some of it for camels, sheep, dates, &c. Perhaps the most pleasant place in the whole country is that small district on which the temple of Jupiter Ammon antiently stood; yet this is surrounded with horrid plains of burning sands, which move under the traveller's feet like waves; or, being raised by the winds, overwhelm him with clouds of dust. If any are obliged to journey through this disagreeable region, they must travel with a compass, or they would be lost in the desert, and wander about till they are perished with hunger and thirst. The ancient Cyrenaica is the desert part, and that called Marmarica the inhabitable district: those who live near the sea-coast are all given to piracy; and the maritime part itself is called the Coast of Derna, from the chief city remaining, all the other towns known to the ancients being either totally ruined, or dwindled to the most inconsiderable villages. The authors of the Universal History say thus concerning the principal places of this country, "What condition they are in, what commerce they drive, or how and by whom governed, we cannot find any satisfactory account of." And as we have not any information relative to them, more recent than what those gentlemen have adverted to, we can only further add, that the people are most determined, ferocious, and cruel robbers both by sea and land; and that they are so poor as to be obliged frequently to sell their wives and children to their neighbours, in order to augment their means of subsisting, and to get rid of all that they may deem an incumbrance.

In order to expose the ferocious and rapacious disposition of the people of this part of the globe, in which they exceed those of all others, we shall close our account of Barbary with the following narrative of the loss of his majesty's ship the *Litchfield*, and the unexampled sufferings of the crew during their slavery in Morocco.

On the 11th of November 1758 the *Litchfield*, commanded by Capt. Barton, departed from Ireland, in company with several other men of war and transports, intended for the reduction of Goree, under the command of commodore Keppel.

They met with a prosperous voyage till the 28th of the month, on the evening of which day the weather turned out very squally, with rain. At nine o'clock it was exceeding dark, with much lightning, and at half an hour after nine they had an extreme hard squall, at which time Capt. Barton came upon deck, and staid till ten, when he left orders to keep sight of the commodore, and to make what sail the weather would permit.

At one o'clock in the morning of the 29th the light which they took to be the commodore's was right ahead bearing south, and the wind blew very hard at west south-west. At six o'clock in the morning the author of this account was awaked by a great shock, and a confused noise of the men upon deck; on which he ran up, thinking some ship was ran foul of them, having no thoughts of being near land, since, according to every person's reckoning they were at least 35 leagues from it; but, before he could reach the quarter deck, he was too sensibly convinced of their dismal situation, by the ship giving a great stroke on the ground, and the sea breaking all over them.

Just after this he could perceive the land, at the distance of about two cables length, appearing rocky and uneven. The ship lying with her broadside to windward, the sea broke entirely over them; the masts soon went overboard, and some of the men were carried off with them.

It is impossible to conceive their distress at this time;

the masts, yards and sails hanging along-side in a confused heap, the ship beating violently upon the rocks, the waves curling up to an incredible height, and then dashing down with such force as if they would have split the ship to pieces, which they every moment expected.

But now Providence favoured them greatly; for some of the large waves breaking without the ship, the remainder of their force came against the starboard quarter; and the anchors that were cut away as soon as they struck, now assisted in bringing the ship's head towards the sea.

This gave a prospect of prolonging life, perhaps, a few hours, which was all at that time they could expect: however, their scattered senses now recovering a little, they saw it necessary to get every thing they could over to the larboard side, to prevent the ship from heeling off, and exposing the deck again to sea: and the waves for the most part breaking forwards, they seized the opportunity, and got most of the starboard guns on the upper deck over, with what else they could come at.

Some of the people, contrary to advice, were very earnest to get the boats out; and at length, after much intreaty, one of the boats was launched, and eight of the best men jumped into her; and though at this time the sea was rather abated, she had hardly got to the ship's stern, when she was instantly whirl'd to the bottom, and every man in her perished; and the rest of the boats were soon washed to pieces upon deck.

They now made a raft of the captern-bars, some boards, &c. which being done, they had only to wait with resignation for the assistance of Providence.

The ship was so soon filled with water, that they had no time to get any provision up. The quarter-deck and poop were now the only places they could stand on with any security, the waves being far spent by the time they reached those parts, owing to their being broke by the fore part of the ship.

At four o'clock in the afternoon, the sea being then much abated, as it was almost low water, and as there was reason to imagine that the ship could not withstand the violence of the next flood, one of the people swam safe ashore.

There were numbers of Moors upon the rocks, who beckoned much for them to come on shore; which they at first took for kindness, but they were soon undeceived, as these wretches had not the humanity to assist any one who was entirely naked, but fled to those who had any thing about them, whom they stripped before they were well out of the water, wrangling among themselves about the plunder, while the poor man was left to crawl up the rocks if he was able; if not, they gave themselves no concern about him.

Mr. Sutherland, with the second lieutenant, and about 65 others, got ashore before dark, where they were exposed to the weather upon the cold sand, and, to keep themselves from perishing, were obliged to go down to the shore to bring up pieces of the wreck to make a fire; and if they happened to pick up a shirt or an handkerchief, and did not deliver it to the Moors on the first demand, a dagger was instantly offered to their breasts.

The Moors having allowed them a piece of an old sail, which they did not think worth carrying off, they made two tents, into which they crowded, sitting one between the other's legs, to preserve warmth, and make room.

In this uneasy situation, continually bewailing their own fate, and that of their poor ship-mates on the wreck, they passed a most turbulent, dark and rainy night, without a drop of water to refresh them, except what they caught in their sail-cloth covering.

On the 30th of November, at six in the morning, they went down on the rocks to assist their ship-mates in coming ashore, and found the ship had been greatly shattered in the night. It being now low water, many attempted to swim on shore, some of whom got safe, while others perished.

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Those on board got the raft into the water, and about 15 men upon it; but they were no sooner put off from the wreck than it was quite overturned; but most of the men recovered it again, when it was instantly overfet a second time, and all perished except three or four.

About this time a good swimmer brought a rope ashore, and Mr. Sutherland running hastily over the rocks into the water, caught hold of it just as the man was quite spent, and had thought of quitting it; and some others coming to his assistance, they, by the help of that, pulled a larger rope ashore, and made it fast round a rock.

They found this gave spirits to the poor people on the wreck; for the rope being hauled tight from the upper part of the stern, made an easy descent for any one who had art enough to walk or slide upon the rope, with another above to hold by, in which manner they proceeded almost half way ashore.

The under rope was intended for a traveller to pull people ashore, being fastened to the large rope with an iron ring, to go backwards and forwards, but there being a knot in the large rope, when once they had pulled it over it would not return. However, it was of great service, and was the means of saving a number of lives.

They continued coming by the rope till about eleven o'clock, though many of them were washed off and perished. The flood then coming on raised the surf, and prevented any more coming at that time, and the ropes could be of no farther use.

They now retired to the rocks, and being extremely hungry, they began to broil some of the drowned turkeys, &c. which, with some flour mixed, and baked among the coals, made their first meal on this barbarous coast: and at about half a mile distant they found a well of fresh water, which was of the utmost service to them.

They had scarcely finished their meal when the Moors, who were now grown numerous, drove them all down to the rocks, beating them if they lingered, (though some were hardly able to crawl,) to bring up empty iron-bound casks, pieces of the wreck which had iron about them, and other things.

About three o'clock in the afternoon they had another meal upon the drowned poultry; and finding this was the best food they were likely to have, some of them were ordered to save all they could find upon the shore, others to raise a larger tent, and the rest were sent down to the rocks to look out for people coming ashore.

The surf greatly increasing with the flood, and breaking upon the fore part of the ship, she was now divided into three pieces. The fore part was turned keel up; the middle part was soon dashed into a thousand pieces. The fore part of the poop likewise fell at this time, and about 30 men with it, eight of whom got safe on shore, but so bruised that their recovery was despaired of.

A most melancholy prospect now appeared: nothing but the after part of the poop remained above water, with a very small part of the other decks, on which was the captain, and about 130 more, expecting every wave to be their last; for the wreck seemed as if it was instantly going to throw them all to the bottom, and every shock threw some off, hardly any of whom came on shore alive.

During this distress the Moors laughed very loud, and seemed much diverted when a wave larger than common threatened the destruction of the poor tottering souls upon the wreck.

Between four and five o'clock the sea was much decreased with the ebb; and the rope being still secure they began to venture upon it, when some fell off and perished, but others got safe on shore.

About five o'clock those on shore made signs for the captain to come upon the rope, as that appeared to be as good an opportunity as any they had observed: but some who came lately off, said, that the captain was resolved to stay till all the men had made the best of their way to land, or at least had quitted the wreck; which bravery of his they at once admired and lamented.

However, they still continued to beckon him, and, just before it was dark, they had the pleasure of seeing him come on the rope. He was close followed by a good able seaman, who did all he could to keep up his spirits, and assist him in warping.

As the captain could not swim, and had been so long without any refreshment, he was no longer able to resist the violence of the waves, but had lost his hold of the great rope, and must unavoidably have perished, had not a wave thrown him within the reach of the ropes held by those on shore, which he had barely the sense left to lay hold of. They pulled him up, and, after resting a little while upon the rocks, he came to himself, and walked up to the tent, desiring the others to assist the rest of the people in coming ashore.

The Moors were for stripping the captain, though he had nothing on but a plain waistcoat, and a pair of breeches; but his people, plucking up their spirits upon this occasion, opposed them; on which they thought proper to desist.

The people still continued to come on shore pretty fast, though many perished in the attempt: but they plainly saw that their case was desperate, as the wreck must inevitably fall to pieces with the next flood.

The Moors at length growing tired with waiting for so little plunder, would not let them remain any longer upon the rocks, but drove them all up; whereupon Mr. Sutherland, with the captain's permission, went and made supplication to the bashaw, who was in his tent with many other Moors, dividing the plunder.

Mr. Sutherland having by signs made himself understood, the bashaw gave them leave to go down to the sea-side, sending some Moors with them. They carried fire-brands down, to let the poor creatures on the wreck see that they were still ready to assist them.

Mr. Sutherland says, that he has no doubt but many perished while they were gone, for want of their help; for they had been but a few minutes on the rocks when one came very near them before they saw him; and this was frequently a circumstance of as much honor as any they met with; for just as the poor wretches appeared in sight, they were washed from the rope, and dashed to death against the rocks close to their more fortunate companions.

About nine at night, finding that no more men would venture upon the rope, as the surf was again greatly increased, they retired to their tents with hearts full of sorrow, leaving, according to the last man's account, between 30 and 40 upon the wreck.

They now thought of crowding all into the tent, and began by fixing the captain in the middle. They then made every one lie down on his side, as they could not afford him a breadth: but, after all, there were many that took easier lodgings in empty casks that had been thrown on shore.

On the first of December, in the morning, the wreck was all in pieces upon the rocks, and the shore quite covered with lumber.

The people upon the wreck perished about one in the morning, as we learnt from one who was tossed up and down nearly two hours upon a piece of the wreck, and at last thrown upon the rocks senseless, but recovered, and got to the tent by day-light, though greatly bruised.

The Moors were very busy in picking up every thing of value, but would not suffer the English to take the least thing, except pork, flour, and liquor, all of which they secured as much as they could in the tent.

Some were now employed in enlarging the tent, and raising another; some in trying to make bread, and some in cleaning the drowned stock.

At one in the afternoon they mustered the men, and placing them in ranks, found the number to be 220: so that there were 130 drowned, among which number was the first lieutenant, the captain of marines, his lieutenant, the purser, gunner, carpenter, and three midshipmen. They now returned public thanks to Almighty God for their deliverance.

On

On the second of December, at five in the morning, they found one George Allen, a marine, dead close by the tent, which they imagined was occasioned by drinking brandy among the rocks, as several had got drunk that way, though they used what means they could to prevent it.

This day two men were whipped, by order of Capt. Barton, for their insolence, which was highly necessary, both to convince the Moors, and their own people, that they were still under command.

At two in the afternoon there arrived a black servant from one Mr. Butler, at Saffy, a town about thirty miles distant, to enquire into their situation, and give them assistance. This man having brought pens, ink, and paper, the captain wrote a letter to Mr. Butler; and they finding there was even one person who offered them help, was a circumstance which gave the highest satisfaction.

On the morning of the third of December they assembled the people, and read prayers of thanksgiving. In the afternoon they received a letter from Mr. Butler, with some bread, and a few other necessaries, which were extremely acceptable. They now heard that one of the transports, and a bomb-tender, were wrecked about three leagues to the northward of them, and a great many of the men saved.

On the fourth of the month the people were employed in picking up pieces of the sails, and what else the Moors would permit them. They now divided the people into messes, and served them with the necessaries they received the day before. In the afternoon they received another letter from Mr. Butler, who was factor to the Danish African Company, and himself a Dane; and at the same time they had a letter from one Mr. Andrews, an Irish gentleman, who was a merchant at Saffy.

On the fifth the people were employed to gather muscles at low water, the drowned stock being all exhausted. Mr. Andrews arrived this morning, and brought with him a French surgeon, and some medicines and plaisters, which many of the bruised men stood in great need of. In the afternoon one of the seamen died by his bruises mortifying.

The next day was delivered one of the country blankets to every two men, and a pair of slippers to such as stood in need of them. These supplies were brought by Mr. Andrews. The people were now forced to live on muscles and bread, the Moors having deceived them, though they promised to supply them with cattle.

On the seventh the Moors began to be somewhat civil, for fear the emperor should punish them for their cruelty to the English; and in the afternoon a messenger arrived from the emperor at Sallee, with orders in general to the people to supply them with provisions. They accordingly brought some poor bullocks and lean sheep, which Mr. Andrews purchased; but at this time they had no pots to make broth in, and the cattle were hardly fit for any thing else.

On the ninth, in the morning, they saw several dead bodies upon the rocks. This day the people were employed in bringing up the oak timbers, &c. from the sea side, the emperor having sent orders to save whatever might be of use to his cruizers.

On the morning of the tenth they got every thing ready to march to Morocco, the emperor having sent orders for that purpose, and camels to carry the lame, and the necessaries. At nine o'clock they set out with about 30 camels, and at noon were joined by the crews of the two other wrecked vessels, when they were all mounted on camels, except the captain, who was furnished with a horse. They did not stop till seven in the evening, when the Moors procured them only two tents, which would not contain one third of the men; so that most of them lay exposed to the dew, which was very heavy and cold. They now found their whole number to be 338, including officers, men, boys, three women, and a young child, which one of the women had brought ashore with her teeth.

No. 38.

They continued their journey on the eleventh, attended by a number of Moors on horseback: and the alcaid, who had the conducting of them, now furnished several of the officers with horses. They did not travel strait for Morocco, being informed that they must meet the emperor coming from Sallee. At six in the evening they came to their resting place for the night, and were furnished with tents sufficient to cover all the men.

On the twelfth they set out at five in the morning, and at two in the afternoon saw the emperor's cavalcade at a distance. At three a relation of the emperor's, named Muli Adris, came to them, and told the captain, it was the emperor's positive orders that he should instantly write a letter to the governor of Gibraltar, to send to his Britannic majesty, to know whether he would settle a peace with him or not.

Captain Barton sat down immediately on the grass, and wrote a letter, which being given to Muli Adris, he returned to the emperor. At six in the evening they came to their resting place for the night, and were well furnished with tents, but had very little provision.

On the thirteenth they had provision brought them, and were desired to remain in their present situation till the men were refreshed.

Having waited till the sixteenth, and the men being greatly recovered of their fatigues, they continued their journey as before; and at four in the afternoon came to their resting place, pitched their tents, and refreshed themselves with provisions.

Here some of the country Moors used the English ill as they were taking water from the brook. The Moors would always spit in the vessel before they would let them take any away. Hereupon a party of the English went to enquire into the affair, and were immediately saluted with a shower of stones. They then run in upon the Moors, beat some of them, put them to flight, and brought away one, who attempted to defend himself with a long knife. This fellow was severely punished by the alcaid who had the conducting of the English.

On the morning of the seventeenth each of the people had a dram, as had been usual, and they then continued their journey; and at four in the afternoon came to the resting place for the night, and, after some difficulty, got tents and a proper supply of provision.

On the eighteenth of December, at three in the afternoon, they came to the city of Morocco, without having seen one dwelling-house in the whole journey. They were here insulted by the rabble as they passed, and at five o'clock were conducted to the emperor, who was on horseback before the gate of his palace, surrounded by five or six hundred of his guards.

He told Captain Barton, by an interpreter, that he was neither at peace or war with the English, and that he would detain him and his people till an ambassador came from England to settle a firm peace.

The captain then desired that they might not be used as slaves; to which the emperor hastily replied, that they should be taken care of; and they were then directly thrust out of his presence, conveyed to two ruined houses, and shut up amidst dirt and innumerable vermin of several sorts.

Mr. Butler, who was mentioned before, being at Morocco on business, came and assisted them with victuals and drink, and procured liberty for the captain to go home with him to his lodging. He likewise sent some blankets for the officers, with which they made a shift to pass the night pretty comfortably, as they were greatly fatigued.

On the morning of the nineteenth their sentinel was taken off, and the people had liberty to go out. The Moors likewise sent them some bread, and towards night some beef; but they had yet no conveniency to dress it; and the people were all day employed in clearing out the rubbish, and destroying the vermin.

On the twentieth some of their necessaries which they had on the road were brought to them, after being rummaged,

rummaged, and the captain's trunk robbed of 19 ducats, several rings, silver buckles, a watch, and other things, mostly belonging to the foremast-men. Mr. Butler, and his partner, Mr. Dekon, did every thing in their power to assist them; and the people now had pots to boil their victuals, nor were they in any want of bread.

On the morning of the twenty-first the emperor sent money to the captain for the support of the men, at a blanqueen a day each, or two-pence sterling; but that being insufficient, Captain Barton got money from Mr. Butler to make it up four-pence sterling, which he managed himself for them to the best advantage, allowing them one pound of beef or mutton, with broth, and one pound of bread every day.

At nine o'clock in the morning of this day, the emperor sent for the captain and every officer to appear before him, and they instantly repaired to his palace, where they remained two hours waiting in an outer yard. In the mean time he diverted himself with seeing a clumsy Dutch boat rowed about a pond by four of the petty officers.

About noon they were summoned before him, and placed in a line, about thirty yards from him. He was sitting in a chair by the side of a pond, with only two of his chief alcaids near him. Having viewed them some time, he ordered the captain to come forward; and after having asked him some questions concerning the English navy, and the destination of the squadron, of which the Litchfield made a part, he called forward the rest of the people by two and three at a time, as they stood according to the rank. Then asking most of them some very insignificant questions, and taking some of them to be Portuguese, because they had black hair, and others to be Swedes, because they had white hair, he judged none of them to be Englishmen except the captain, the second lieutenant, the ensign of the soldiers, and Mr. Sutherland; but on their assuring him that they were all English, he cried bono, and gave a nod for their departure; to which they returned a very low bow, and were glad to get to their old ruined houses again.

On the 22d of December Captain Barton provided the people with stuff for frocks, trowsers, and mats and pillars to lie on, with every other necessary that could be got; and they were all employed in making themselves cloaths in the best manner they were able.

On the next day the captain received a message from the emperor, with orders, that if any of the English should be guilty of a crime, he should punish them the same as if they were on board his ship; but if they should quarrel with the Moors, they must abide by the Moorish laws, which were very severe against the Christians.

On the twenty-fourth, being Sunday, they were all assembled, and prayers were read in the same manner as if they had been on board, and they returned unfeigned thanks to God for the many favours he had bestowed on them. They had but one bible among them all, and that was a present from Mr. Andrews; and though they had no clergyman, Captain Barton never omitted a single Sunday to assemble the men, and have service performed.

On Christmas day prayers were read to the people as usual in the church of England: and this day the captain received a present of some tea and loaves of sugar from one of the emperor's queens, whose grandfather had been an English renegado.

The next day they heard the disagreeable news that the emperor would oblige all the English to work in the same manner as the other Christian slaves, excepting the officers that were before him on the twenty-first of the month.

On the twenty-seventh, at seven in the morning, an alcaid came and ordered the people all out to work, except those who were sick; and, by intercession, eight were allowed to stay at home every day as cooks for the rest, which they took by turns throughout the whole,

At four in the afternoon the people returned, some of whom had been employed in carrying wood, some in turning up the ground with hoes, and others in picking weeds in the emperor's garden. Their food was provided by the time they came home.

Next day all the people went to work as soon as they could see. They were allowed to sit down an hour and a half in the middle of the day; but had many a stroke from their drivers, when they were doing their best to deserve better usage. The captain endeavoured all that was in his power to get this remedied, which, with the assistance of their good friend Juan Arbona, he was in hopes of effecting.

This Juan Arbona, who had been in the country eight years, was taken under English colours, and had a pass signed by General Blakeney at Minorca. For two or three years past the emperor had kept him near his own person, and put much confidence in him. He was much attached to the English, and did every thing in his power to assist them.

On the twenty-ninth the people were allowed a hot breakfast of porridge, sweetened with honey, before they went to their work. This work was sometimes to hoe the ground, and at other times to carry wood or stones for building, and such other things as the slaves are commonly employed in.

The next day Captain Barton received an obliging message from the emperor, with his permission for him to ride out, or take a walk in his gardens, with any of the officers.

The thirty-first of the month was Sunday, but the people were obliged to go to work as before, the captain not being able to obtain permission for them to stay at home on Sundays. At four o'clock they returned, and at five prayers were read to them as usual.

On the first of January 1759 the people were continued at their work as usual, but had not so much bad usage, and were in a fair way of having less, owing chiefly to the good offices of their friend Juan Arbona, who took all imaginable pains to make their work as light as possible. He now obtained leave for the Christians to quit their work at twelve o'clock on Sundays, which was no small favour, and such as was never granted in this country before.

The people kept their health as yet pretty well, having a cool air to work in at this time of the year; but it is scorching hot in the summer, when there is seldom any wind to refresh the labourers.

On the second of January a new moon commenced, whereupon the emperor sent Captain Barton the money for the support of the people till the next moon.

By this time they were got into a settled way of living, so that it will be unnecessary to take notice of those things that occurred daily; we shall, therefore, only remark any extraordinary occurrences.

Nothing material happened till the beginning of February, when two soldiers died within a few days of each other; and the emperor enquiring into the cause of their deaths, Juan Arbona told him that it was occasioned by catching cold for want of cloaths; upon which he received immediate orders to give every English slave as much white linen as would make two shirts.

In the month of March a Spaniard having some words with a Moor, who had first used him ill, was carried before the emperor, who ordered him to be immediately knocked on the head before his face, and the dead body to be exposed for two days afterwards; during which time the Moors and Jews shewed the brutality of their dispositions, by dashing the body to pieces with stones as they passed.

About the middle of April the English received letters which gave them hopes of speedy relief; but the men were not now so healthy as they had been, some being afflicted with a fever, and some with the flux.

On the 26th of May the emperor received a letter from Lord Home, offering 170,000 dollars for the freedom of the English, with which his majesty seemed very well pleased, and promised to send immediately for

for the ambassador, and let them go; but they found that there was no trusting to any thing he said.

On the fifteenth of June a courier set out with the emperor's letter to the ambassador. He was a Jew, named Toledano, and had orders to proceed to Gibraltar, and return with the ambassador.

About ten days after this, the emperor ordered that the English should work only from day-light till nine o'clock, and then go home till three in the afternoon, when they should return and work till sun-set. The number that went to work was likewise limited to 100, which might soon enable them to make two gangs; for the people being kept from working in the excessive heat of the sun, the numbers of sick decreased daily.

On the second of July the emperor set out from Morocco with an army of 6000 men, which was soon increased to 30,000, as great numbers joined him continually. He went to subdue some part of his dominions that would not acknowledge his sovereignty.

In about eight days time he sent to the city of Morocco the heads of 70 men, which were placed against one of the great gates of the city. There were also about 200 prisoners, the chief of whom, to the number of 40, were put into one of the towers of the wall, and about one third of their number put on the top of it, with large wooden rammers. They were then supplied with earth, which they were obliged to beat till the roof gave way with the load, and then they all perished together.

About the tenth of August orders came for 50 men more to go to work, by which the English found that the emperor was uneasy that their ambassador did not come.

On the eighteenth they heard from Gibraltar that the ambassador deferred coming; but on the twentieth they had the agreeable news that he would set sail from Gibraltar in a few days. This good news kept their hopes alive till the latter end of August, when a courier arrived from Tetuan, who brought the news of Admiral Boscawen's having beat the French fleet, and that the ambassador's ship being in the engagement, was obliged to stay some time at Gibraltar to refit.

During all this time the emperor's cruizers had passports from Lord Home, and were all out, and constantly sending in prizes, which gave the captives but little hope of bringing matters to an accommodation that summer; as the keeping his cruizers in port is the readiest way of making him hearken to reason.

Most of the cruizers being returned successful into port by the middle of September, the English had the assurance of the long expected ambassador being at Sallee, with his majesty's ships Guernsey and Theris, having the money on board for their redemption, which the emperor was informed of at his camp; but being elated with his success both by land and sea, and having nothing to fear from the English till the next spring, he only trifled with the ambassador, by making extravagant demands, to detain him upon the coast, which is very dangerous in the winter time.

His last demand was 250,000 dollars, 30 pieces of cannon, and a large quantity of powder and shot. The ambassador had come up to 200,000 dollars to satisfy him for every pretension; but on hearing this last demand, he sent the emperor word that it never would be complied with, and immediately left the coast, having first lost two anchors in Sallee road.

When the emperor found there was nothing to be done by keeping the ship, he dispatched one of his alcaids to Gibraltar with more moderate proposals; and desired that a gentleman might be sent to him, with authority from the ambassador to treat on the subject, and carry back his determined resolution.

Accordingly Mr. Hafler, the ambassador's secretary, was sent with answers to the emperor's last demands, who used every argument to convince him that it was not in the ambassador's power to grant him any supplies of warlike stores, as that was contrary to treaties firmly subsisting between England and other nations then at

peace with her; but the emperor would not be convinced, and suffered Mr. Hafler to return to Gibraltar, without giving him his determined resolution.

During this interval, there were eight or nine English passengers taken under Portuguese colours, and brought to Morocco, which the captives apprehended would be an additional subject of dispute.

About the middle of October the emperor again sent Toledano, the Jew, with more moderate proposals than any of the former, and with authority to accommodate all differences.

In the beginning of February, 1760, Toledano returned with Lord Home's determined resolution to give 200 000 dollars for the redemption of every British subject in the emperor's dominions, and 20,000 dollars to purchase warlike stores, which he might do by sending a vessel of his own to England.

About this time Captain Barton was used very ill, which happened in the following manner. He had been allowed to keep a mule for some time past, and commonly used to ride from his house, which was near the palace, to the house where the men were lodged. The emperor happened to see him; but Capt. Barton thinking himself so far distant that he should not be taken notice of, only put his hat under his arm, and rode on, as he was at that instant obscured by a wall.

The emperor sent two of his guards after him, and he was just going to alight at the house when they came up with him, and pulled him from off the mule, giving him several strokes with their straps, which they always have ready for that purpose. They seized him, one on each side, by the collar, and in that manner hurried him to one of the gates, and shut him up in a hole behind the door.

The mob would hardly allow his officers to follow him. However, Mr. Sutherland got in with him, but they had not been there a quarter of an hour, before the same two fellows that seized him came and set him free, and wanted money for that favour, agreeable to the custom of the country; but Captain Barton would not give them a blanquet, and bid them go and tell their master so.

The men were now kept more strictly than ever to their work, and the alcaid came oftener to search the house; but the vigilance of Captain Barton, and their good friend Juan Arbona, got the better of a number of difficulties and impositions, which would otherwise have rendered the lives of the people very unhappy.

For a fortnight past the emperor had considered on the last proposals; and having discoursed with Toledano several times on the subject, he at length resolved to send him once more to Gibraltar, with his determined resolution to accept of two hundred thousand dollars for the redemption of all the English subjects, and twenty-five thousand dollars for every other pretension: and as he now seemed to be more in earnest than ever he had been before, they began to think their deliverance was at hand.

Toledano set out for Gibraltar about the middle of February, with orders to write to the emperor, immediately upon Lord Home's agreeing to his proposals; and upon receipt of this letter the captives were to set out for Sallee, to be ready for embarking when the ambassador arrived there.

On the 25th of March the emperor received assurances from Gibraltar that his demands should be duly complied with, on the embarkation of the captives at Sallee, for which place the ambassador would sail with the first fair wind, with the money and presents.

Hereupon his majesty sent to captain Barton, who had also received letters, to inform him that he, and all the people who were cast away, should soon set out for Sallee. The joy they felt on this occasion may be better imagined than described. Captain Barton took up money from the merchants, with which they soon provided every thing that could be wanted in a journey of ten days, for three hundred and twenty men; but they were still kept to their work.

On the 11th of April the men left off going to work ; and on the evening of the 12th the emperor sent for captain Barton, Mr. Sutherland, and the second lieutenant, and told them they were to go away on the next morning, and that he would make peace with the English nation, if they were willing ; if not, he did not care. He then gave a nod for their departure, on which they made a low bow, and walked off with much lighter hearts than ever they had felt before.

The next morning they were all ready before sun-rising, but waited till nine o'clock for the mules and camels : then they were all mounted, generally two upon a camel, and immediately went without the city, and when all were come, they proceeded on their journey, attended by a bashaw and one hundred soldiers on horseback.

They were now treated in a more agreeable manner, than when they came thither near eighteen months before. Mr. Barton was now consulted how fast he chose to travel, and when to stop. In the evening they pitched their tents, which were all properly numbered, and formed an exact oval. In this good order they pursued their journey without wanting for any thing.

On the fourth day of their march they had a skirmish with some of the Moors. It was occasioned by some of the men in the rear stopping to buy milk at a country village, for which the Moors wanted to make them pay an extravagant price after they had drank it, which they would not comply with. Hereupon the Moors began to beat them, which the English returned, and others going to their assistance, they maintained a smart battle, till the Moors grew too numerous. In the mean time some of the English rode off to call their guard, who instantly repaired to their assistance with their drawn scymetars, and dealt round them pretty briskly : in the interim the English were not idle, but made the blood stream down the faces of many Moors.

The guards then seized the chief man of the village, and carried him to the bashaw, who conducted the English, who having heard the whole affair, dismissed him without further punishment, in consideration of his having been already well drubbed.

On the 22d of April they got to Sallee, and pitched their tents in an old castle, from whence they had the long-wished-for happiness to see three English ships lying at anchor, ready to receive them ; but when they

viewed the bar of the harbour, with a large roaring surf upon it, they began to think their embarkation would probably prove tedious, which accordingly happened ; for it was the 4th of May before the bar was smooth enough for the boats to go out, and then only half the people could go, as there were not boats enough for all.

Captain Barton judged it proper to send off first all the soldiers, inferior officers, and some sailors, to make up one hundred and sixty-two in number, over the bar. They came to grappling, and waited till half the money was brought from the ship, and put into their boat, which returned over the bar, and the men got safe on board, where those who remained on shore cast many a wishful eye, till the 13th, during which interval they had much uneasiness, as the Moors were suspicious of the ambassador's not coming to shore, and wanted to detain some of the officers for a security ; but at last the ambassador, and captain Barton's sagacity, surmounted this difficulty, and they all got over the bar, where they waited till the money was put into the Moor's boat, upon which they proceeded on board the Guernsey, with hearts full of gratitude to God and their country, for their deliverance from so barbarous a people.

They were most cheerfully welcomed by the ambassador and all his officers, whose kindness they experienced a full month, while they waited for the passengers, to the number of twenty-five men and women, whom the emperor wanted to keep till the ambassador came to him. This could not be complied with ; but at length the emperor, after sending a person to settle that point with the English ambassador, consented to let them all go, except Juan Arbona and Pedro Umberto, whom he absolutely refused to part from ; which occasioned a general grief, on account of the former, as he had been a steady friend to them in their adversity, and kindly assisted them in all their difficulties.

They arrived at Gibraltar on the 27th of June, and on the 29th sailed for England in his majesty's storeship Marlborough, where they arrived in good health on the 7th of August, but remained in quarantine till the 19th of September 1760, and on the 20th had leave to go on shore ; captain Barton and all his people being honourably acquitted by a court-martial for the loss of the Litchfield.

C H A P. XXI.

A F R I C A N I S L A N D S.

SECTION I.

THE CANARY ISLANDS.

THE Canaries, formerly called the Fortunate Islands, are situated in the Atlantic Ocean between the 12th and 19th degrees of west longitude, and between the 27th and 29th of north latitude, about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. They are seven in number, and their particular names are, Teneriffe, Canaria, Palma, Ferro, Gomera, Fuerteventura and Lancerora.

The Canary Islands have been subject to the crown of Spain since the war in 1417, at which time they were discovered by John de Betancourt, a Frenchman in the service of Castile, who subdued Fuerteventura and Lancerora, as others after him did the rest from that time to the year 1496. In the days of Ferdinand, king of Castile, and Alphonso V. of Portugal, each

of them claiming a right to the others dominions, and assuming each others titles, there ensued a bloody war between the Spaniards and Portuguese, till both sides being spent, a peace was concluded in 1479 at Alcobazas, on the 4th of September, by which they reciprocally renounced their pretensions ; and it was therein stipulated, that the Canary Islands should entirely belong to the crown of Castile, and the commerce and navigation of Guinea to that of Portugal, exclusive of the Castilians.

The Canaries enjoy a pure and temperate air, and such is the nature of the soil that it frequently yields two crops in a year. They abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines known to us by the name of Canary, and of which, it is said, that in times of peace not less than 10,000 hogsheads are annually exported to England.

We shall describe the Canary Islands distinctly, beginning with

TENERIFFE.

Engraved for BANKES'S *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority*



The PIKE of TENERIFFE.



SEPULCHRAL CAVES of the GUANCHES in the ISLE of TENERIFFE.

TENERIFFE.

THE Island of Teneriffe is about 50 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. The country is fertile, tho' much encumbered with mountains, particularly that called the Peak, which, according to the accounts of some navigators, may be seen in clear weather at the distance of 120 miles. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar loaf, about 15 miles in circumference, and, according to the account published in the Philosophical Transactions, near three miles perpendicular.

Captain Cook made the Peak of Teneriffe on his first voyage, in the account of which the following particulars are mentioned.

"The height of this mountain has been described by Dr. Heberden, who has been upon it, to be 15,396 feet, which is but 148 yards less than three miles, reckoning the mile at 1760 yards. Its appearance at sun-set was very striking; when the sun was below the horizon, and the rest of the island appeared of a deep black, the mountain still reflected its rays, and glowed with a warmth of colour which no painting can express. There is no eruption of visible fire from it; but a heat issues from the chinks near the top, too strong to be borne by the hand when it is held near them."

The air and climate are said to be remarkably healthful, and particularly adapted to afford relief in phthical complaints. By residing at different heights in the island, such a temperature may be procured as is best suited to the constitution. Persons may continue where the air is mild and salubrious, as they may ascend till the cold becomes intolerable; but no person, it is said, can live comfortably within a mile of the perpendicular height of the Peak after the month of August.

Captain Cook touched at this famous island in his last voyage, and gave the following description of it.

The road of Santa Cruz, says that navigator, is situated on the south-east side of the island, before the town of the same name. It is said to be the principal road of Teneriffe for shelter, capacity, and the goodness of its bottom.

The water to supply the shipping, and for the use of the inhabitants of Santa Cruz, is derived from a rivulet that runs from the hills, which is conveyed into the town in wooden troughs. As these troughs were repairing at the time Captain Cook visited the island, fresh water was extremely scarce.

From the appearance of the country about Santa Cruz, it might naturally be concluded that Teneriffe is a barren spot. Captain Cook was convinced, however, from the ample supplies his people received, that it not only produced sufficient to supply its own inhabitants, but also enough to spare for visitors. Though wine is the chief produce of the island, beef may be had at about three-pence sterling a pound. The oxen, however, are small, lean, and boney. Sheep, goats, hogs, and poultry, may be had on terms equally reasonable. A great variety of fruits are to be had in plenty; as pears, figs, grapes, mulberries, muskmelons, &c. besides others that were not then in season. The pumpkins, potatoes, and onions, which grow here, are excellent.

Indian corn is produced on this island, and sold at about three shillings and six-pence per bushel. The fruits and vegetables are, in general, very cheap. Tho' the inhabitants are but indifferently supplied with fish by the adjoining seas, they are engaged in a considerable fishery on the coast of Barbary, and the produce of it sells at a very moderate price.

Teneriffe is certainly a more eligible place than Madeira for ships to touch at which are bound on long voyages: but the wine of the latter is infinitely superior to that of the former. The difference of their prices is almost as considerable as their qualities; for Teneriffe wine was sold for 12l. a pipe, where-pipe of the best Madeira was worth considerably more than double that sum.

No. 39.

Behind the town of Santa Cruz the country rises gradually to a moderate height: afterwards it continues to rise south-westward towards the celebrated Peak of Teneriffe. But our voyagers were much disappointed in their expectations with respect to its appearance, and particularly as to its height.

The island, eastward of Santa Cruz, appears perfectly barren. Ridges of high hills run towards the sea, between which are deep vallies, terminating at mountains that run across, and are higher than the former.

Mr. Anderson went on shore to one of these vallies, intending to reach the top of the remoter hills, but time would not permit him to get farther than their feet. The lower hills produce great quantities of the *Euphorbia Canariensis*. The people on the spot imagine its juice to be so caustic as to corrode the skin; but Mr. Anderson convinced them to the contrary, by thrusting his finger into a plant full of it. The inhabitants dry the bushes of euphorbia, and carry them home for fuel.

Santa Cruz, though not large, is a well-built city. The churches have not a magnificent appearance without, but they are decent and tolerably handsome within.

Almost facing the stone pier, which runs into the sea from the town, is a marble column, lately erected, enriched with human figures which reflect honour to the statuary.

Mr. Anderson, and three others, hired mules to ride to the city of Laguna, about the distance of four miles from Santa Cruz. They arrived there between five and six in the evening; but the sight of it did not reward them for their trouble, as the roads were very bad, and their cattle but indifferent. Though the place is extensive, it hardly deserves to be dignified with the name of a city. There are some good houses, but the disposition of the streets is very irregular. Laguna is larger than Santa Cruz, but much inferior to it in appearance.

The road from Santa Cruz to Laguna runs up a steep, barren hill; but lower down they saw some fig-trees and corn-fields. The corn, however, is not produced here without great labour, the ground being greatly encumbered with stones. Nothing else presented itself deserving notice, except a few aloe plants in flower on the side of the road.

The laborious work in this island is chiefly performed by mules, horses being scarce, and reserved for the use of the officers. Oxen are also much employed here. Some hawks and parrots were seen, which were natives of the island; as also the sea-swallow, sea-gulls, partridges, swallows, canary-birds, and blackbirds. There are also lizards, locusts, and three or four sorts of dragon flies.

Mr. Anderson was informed, by a gentleman of acknowledged veracity, that a shrub is common here, agreeing exactly with the description given by Linnæus of the tea shrub, as growing in China and Japan. It is considered as a weed, and large quantities of it are rooted out of the vineyards every year. The Spaniards, however, who inhabit the island, sometimes make use of it, and ascribe to it all the qualities of the tea imported from China.

The same gentleman mentioned to Mr. Anderson another botanical curiosity, which is called the *impregnated lemon*. It is a distinct and perfect lemon enclosed within another.

There is also a certain grape growing here, which is deemed an excellent remedy in phthical complaints.

Smoke continually issues from near the top of the Peak; but they have had no earthquake or eruption since 1704, when the port of Garrachica was destroyed, being filled up with the burning lava that flowed into it; and houses are now built where ships formerly lay at anchor.

The trade of Teneriffe is very considerable, 40,000 pipes of wine being annually made there, which is consumed in the island, or made into brandy, and sent to the Spanish West Indies. Indeed, the wine is the only considerable

considerable article of the foreign commerce of Teneriffe, unless we reckon the large quantities of filtering stones brought from Grand Canary.

The race of inhabitants found here when the Spaniards discovered the Canaries, are no longer a distinct people, having intermarried with Spanish settlers: their descendants, however, may be known from their being remarkably tall, strong, and large boned. The men are tawny, and the women are pale. The inhabitants of Teneriffe, in general, are decent, grave, and civil, retaining that solemn cast which distinguishes those of their country from others.

The ancient inhabitants of this island were called Guanches. The origin of them is not certainly known; but their sepulchral caves are very remarkable. They had an uncommon veneration for the corpses of their ancestors, which were deposited in caves formed by nature in the rocks. They were preserved in goat-skins, bound round by belts of the same, so exactly and uniformly enclosing the body as to excite admiration, each round being just proportioned to the part; and this method preserved the bodies. The eyes, which are closed, the hair, ears, nose, teeth, lips, and beard, are found entire. They are placed on wooden couches, which the natives had the art of rendering so hard, that they are impenetrable to iron. Some of the caves contained two or three hundred bodies. We shall conclude the account of these sepulchres in the words of a learned gentleman, who resided several years on the island. "Being one day hunting, a ferret, having a bell about his neck, ran after a coney into a hole, where the sound of the bell was lost. The owner being afraid he should lose his ferret, in seeking about the rocks and shrubs, found the mouth of a cave, and entering in, was so affrighted, that he cried out. His fright arose from one of these corpse, very tall and large, lying with the head on a great stone, the feet supported with a little wall of stone, and the body itself resting on a bed of wood. The man being now a little recovered from his fright went nearer, and cut off a great piece of the skin that lay on the breast of the body, which was more flexible and pliant than any kid-leather glove, yet not any ways rotten. These bodies are very light, as if made of straw; and in some that were broken might be observed the nerves and tendons, as also the veins and arteries, like strings, very distinctly. By the relation of the most ancient among them, there was a particular tribe who had this art only among themselves, which they kept as a thing sacred, and not to be communicated to the vulgar. The people of this class were likewise priests, and did not marry out of their own tribe. But when the Spaniards conquered the place, most of them were destroyed, and the art perished with them. Their ancient people say that they have above twenty caves of their kings and great personages, with their whole families, yet unknown to any but themselves, and which they will never discover."

GRAND CANARIA.

THE Grand Canaria, which communicates its name to the whole group, is about 14 leagues in length, and 34 in circumference. The chief city is called Canaria, or Civitas Palmarum, and has a grand cathedral. For the administration of civil affairs, there are several aldermen, who have great authority, and a council-house to themselves. The city itself is beautiful, and the inhabitants dress in a very gay manner. The ground is of such a hard sand that the streets are always clean; and the people in general are healthy, as the air is exceeding temperate, considering the situation is nearly tropical. It is very populous, and its precincts are near a league in compass, most of the houses being well built, two stories high, and flat roofed. The bishop's court, with the inquisitor's tribunal, and the sovereign's council, are held here. But the bishop,

governor, and principal people, reside at Teneriffe by choice, and only repair to Canaria upon business. There are four convents, viz. Dominicans, Franciscans, Bernardines, and Recollects of Observation. There are also twelve sugar houses, called Ingenios, in which a great quantity of sugar is made.

The wine of this island is singularly delicious; and the fruits are melons, pears, apples, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, peaches, battatoes, or Spanish potatoes. The plantano grows near the sides of brooks. This fruit in shape resembles a cucumber, and turns black when ripe, at which time it is one of the most delicious conserves in the universe. The plantano tree will bear fruit but once, when it is cut down, and another tree springs from the same root. As this island has a salubrious air, and is well watered, almost every thing thrives that is planted, such as wild olives, laurel, poplar, pine, palm, Indian-fig, aloe-shrub, &c. Grand Canaria likewise abounds in oxen, kine, camels, goats, sheep, capons, hens, ducks, pigeons, partridges, &c. &c.

This island, as well as the other Canaries, abounds in those beautiful singing-birds called the Canary-bird. A modern naturalist says, "This bird was originally peculiar to those isles to which it owes its name; the same that were known to the ancients by the addition of the *Fortunate*. The happy temperature of the air, the spontaneous productions of the ground in the varieties of fruits, the sprightly and cheerful disposition of the inhabitants, and the harmony arising from the number of birds there, procured them the romantic distinction. On the same spot these charming songsters are still to be found: but they are now so plenty among us, that we are under no necessity of crossing the ocean for them. In its native regions the Canary-bird is of a dusky grey colour, and so different from those usually seen in Europe, that doubts have arisen whether it be of the same species; and it has been observed by travellers, that their wild notes in their native land, far excel those in a cage or other clime. Next to the nightingale, the Canary-bird is considered as the most celebrated songster: it is also reared with less difficulty than any of the soft-billed birds, and continues its song throughout the year; consequently it is rather the most common in our houses."

According to the first discoverers, the original inhabitants of Canaria amounted to upwards of 14,000 men men capable of bearing arms, exclusive of women, children, aged persons, &c. which must have rendered the island extremely populous. The natives in general were tall of stature, well made, active, cheerful, and of dark complexions. They were warlike and humane, faithful to their promises, fond of difficulties, and fearless of dangers. They frequently climbed up very steep precipices, and, by means of long heavy poles, leaped from rock to rock.

Their dress was a close short coat, reaching only to the knees, and girded round the middle with a leather belt. The coat itself was made of rush, which they beat till it became soft like flax, and then spun and wove it into a garment. Their outward covering was a goat-skin cloak; the hairy side of which they wore inward in the winter, and outward in the summer. Their caps were made of the skins of goats heads, so contrived, that part of the beard hung down by each ear, and was sometimes tied under the chin.

The external distinction of the noble or superior rank of Canarians, from those of the vulgar or lower class, was by the cut of their hair or beards.

The Canarians originally used only stones, clubs, and sharp pointed poles; but after having been invaded by the Europeans, they learnt of their invaders the art of making shields and swords. In all their wars, however, they preserved humanity and decency; for they never molested women or children, or did the least damage to the temples or sacred places belonging to their enemies. They had, in times of peace, amphitheatres for public combats; when a challenge being given in form,

form, the challenger and challenged both repaired to the grand council of the island, which consisted of twelve principal nobles: here they petitioned for permission to fight, which being granted, they went to the faycag, or principal officer, to confirm that permission. This being done, and all things prepared, they went to the amphitheatre, where the exhibition was begun by the two combatants mounting on two large stones at some distance, and pelting each other with smaller stones, which were supplied them for that purpose; the principal skill consisting in avoiding being struck by these by the mere dexterity of body. This lapidation being performed, they engaged with a cudgel in the right hand, and a flint stone in the left, with which they gave each other a hearty drubbing: then retiring for some refreshment, they afterwards returned, and fought again, till the grand council ordered them to desist. These combats were generally fought on public festivals; and the cure, if either of the combatants was wounded, was of a singular nature; for a skilful person, who acted as surgeon, pounded a rush, till it became of the consistency of tow, and then dipping it in goat's tallow, he applied it warm to the place affected. These combats were succeeded by singing and dancing; their dances being quick, sprightly, and agil; and their songs all of a plaintive nature.

The houses of the native Canarians were built of stone, but not cemented together: they were, however, fastened with such exactness, that their appearance was not uncouth. The floors were sunk beneath the level of the ground, and the walls were very low. The roofs were formed of wooden beams covered with earth. Beds made of goat skins, mats made of rushes to sit upon, and baskets formed of palm leaves, were the whole of their furniture.

The women, in the proper season, gathered flowers, herbs, and shrubs, from which they extracted a variety of colours; and when that season was over, they employed themselves in dying, staining, and painting their houses, furniture, and dresses. Their thread was made of nerves or tendons, their needles of bone, their fish-hooks of horn, and their domestic utensils of clay dried in the sun. The making mats, baskets, thread, needles, fish-hooks, pottery, &c. were deemed honourable employments; but the trade of a butcher was looked upon as so ignominious, on account of the natural abhorrence the people entertained to killing any animal, that none would converse with a person of that profession, or suffer him to touch any thing belonging to them. Indeed, those in any of these islands who eat meat, were looked upon as but little better than cannibals; and the butchers who killed it for them were consequently held in the utmost detestation. The common food of the Canarians was barley meal, milk, butter, &c. They ground their barley with a hand-mill, and ploughed their ground with a wooden machine, which in some measure resembled a hoe, with a spur at the end of it. When the land was over dry, they had the method of sluicing it by the means of channels cut in parallel lines, with others intersecting them at right angles. When ripe, the corn was always reaped, threshed, and winnowed, by the women.

The richer sort of the people resided chiefly in the inland parts of the island, and the poorer class inhabited the sea coast, where they subsisted principally by fishing. They had a peculiar method of catching a small, but exquisite fish, of the pilchard kind, which was this: when they perceived a shoal near the shore, a number of persons swam off, surrounded the fish, and drove them into nets, which were purposely laid for their reception. The prize was then divided between all present with great equity; but pregnant women had always the allowance of two persons; and those who had children, besides their own share, received a share for each child.

Emulation, instead of severity, directed the education of their children: and parents, when a daughter was to be married, kept her previously thirty days,

during which time she was fed with the most nourishing aliments, in order to fatten her; as they deemed it a bad omen for people to marry when lean.

Among the original Canarians was an order of nuns, who were distinguished from the other women by a peculiar sort of long white garments. They had many superstitious traditional notions among them; and the places where they resided were deemed places of refuge for criminals, and had privileges very nearly resembling European sanctuaries. In all crimes but those punishable by death the laws of retaliation were used, and justice, in general, impartially administered.

In times of public danger, or when they looked upon themselves to be afflicted by any general calamity, the Canarians went in processions to the rocks and mountains, preceded by the religious women, and carrying with them branches of palm, and vessels filled with milk, which latter they poured upon the rocks as religious oblations, and then danced in mournful measures, and sung melancholy songs, to deprecate the wrath of their supposed deities. When any of the Canarians died, if capital people, they were buried in sepulchral caves; if of the vulgar class, in holes in the ground, which were afterwards covered with stones.

P A L M A.

THIS island, which is situated about 50 miles to the west of Teneriffe, is about 30 miles long, 20 broad, and 70 in circumference. On the north-east part is a lofty and spacious mountain called the Cauldron, from having a hollow in it. The descent within the cauldron, which proceeds gradually from the summit, contains a space of about 30 acres, and on the declivity of the inside are several springs that form a stream which issues out from the extremity of the mountain. Near the sea shore, on the south side of the island is a medicinal well of hot water, and at a village called Uguar is a cave at the extremity of which is a curious grotto with the roof stuck with large flakes of slate stones, from between which constantly issues a flow of clear and wholesome water.

In the winter the air is so exceeding sharp up the mountain, that the inhabitants are obliged to keep fires burning night and day; whereas near the sea side they only have them for cooking and other occasional purposes. In the months of July, August and September the heat near the sea shore is intolerable, while in the mountainous parts the air is pleasant and refreshing.

The natural productions of this island, with respect to vegetables, poultry and animals, are much the same as those of Canaria; except, indeed, among the animals it particularly abounds with rabbits.

This island also produces great quantities of sugar and wines, the former of which is made on the west side of the island, and the latter on the east. Their best vines grow in a soil called the Brenia, where it is said they make at least 12,000 casks of wine every year. The wines differ in their quality from those made in the other islands; but they are very rich, and have an excellent flavour. They have likewise great plenty of honey, and most kinds of fruit, the latter of which grow in such abundance, that they export great quantities of them to the other islands.

Here are gum-dragon and pitch, the latter of which the natives extract from the tree called the pitch pine. Pine-apples are likewise very plentiful; and some of the trees on which they grow are so large as to be used for the masts of ships.

Palma, the principal town in this island, so called after its name, is tolerably large, and well inhabited. The houses are low, but spacious; and in one part of the town is a very handsome church. A considerable trade is carried on here in wines, which are exported to various parts, but particularly to the West Indies.

There is another very neat town in this island, called St. Andrew's, where there are four engines for making sugar; but the land hereabouts is very poor, so that the

the inhabitants are supplied with grain, and other necessary articles, from the island of Teneriffe.

The chief port is called Palma; and is situated on the south side of the island. The road is about a quarter of a mile from the shore; and, though it is open to the easterly winds, the ships ride with great safety.

This island has heretofore been greatly subject to earthquakes and volcanos; the effects of which are still to be seen in various parts.

F E R R O.

THIS island is called by the Spaniards Hierro, and by the French L'Isle de Fer. It is the most westerly of all the Canaries; and lies between the 27th and 28th deg. of north latitude, and in 18 deg. west longitude. It is about 30 miles long, 15 broad, and 75 in circumference.

Ferro was particularly famous on account of the French navigators placing their first meridian in the center of it, as the Dutch did theirs through the peak of Teneriffe; but at present most geographers reckon the first meridian from the capital of their own country; as the English from London, the French from Paris, &c.

The soil in some parts of this island is very barren, owing to a scarcity of water; but in others it is fertile, and produces all the necessary articles for the support of the inhabitants. There are but three springs in the whole island: so that only rain water can be had in the chief parts of it. The sheep, goats and hogs that are brought up in those parts distant from the rivulets feed almost all the year round on the roots of fern and asphodil, and therefore have little occasion for water; as the great moisture that is naturally in those roots supply the want of that element.

There is only one small town in the whole island, and the most distinguished building in it is a parish church. There are many small villages dispersed about it, but not any one of them merits particular notice.

The trade carried on here consists in small cattle, brandy, honey, and orchilla weed.

G O M E R A,

SITUATED to the west of Teneriffe, in 28 deg. north lat. and 18 deg. west long. is about 30 miles long, 20 broad, and 60 in circumference. It is very plentiful, being watered by many rivulets that flow from the mountainous parts, and give fertility to the vallies beneath.

The inhabitants seldom import or export any corn, as they cultivate just a sufficiency only for their own consumption. They have great plenty of all the necessities of life, particularly cattle, poultry, roots, fruit and honey. They have deer also in great abundance, and more mules are bred here than in any other of the Canary Islands.

Gomera produces likewise great quantities of sugar, fruits and wine; but the latter commodity is much inferior to that made in the other islands; and is so poor and weak as not to be fit for exportation. It is therefore chiefly consumed among themselves.

This island has but one small town, which is situated near the sea-shore, and is called after its name. The number of houses is about 150; but they are small, and very mean buildings. Here is a tolerable good church, and a convent of friars; and on one side of the town, next the shore, is a small fort, on the south side of which is an old round tower, and on the north side a battery of six small cannon.

Opposite the town of Gomera is a very commodious bay, where ships are well secured from all winds, except the south-east; and the bottom of the bay also affords excellent anchorage. To the north of this bay is a good cove, where ships of any burthen may be conveniently placed for cleansing and repairing. The shore opposite to this cove is a high perpendicular cliff,

over which there is a narrow path-way that leads to the town; and at a small distance before you enter the town there is a large gate, which is shut every night after it is dark. The town begins about fifty yards from this gate, and runs in a strait line to the distance of about half a mile.

F U E R T E V E N T U R A

IS about twenty-four leagues distant from Grand Canaria. It is about 65 miles in length, and of a very unequal breadth, consisting of two peninsulas, joined by an isthmus of 12 miles over. On the north side there is a haven called Chabras, and another, which is very commodious, towards the west.

Between this island and Lancerota there opens a fine sound, sufficiently large to receive a great fleet. Towards the north-east the coast is very foul, and the breakers exceeding dangerous.

There are several small towns, villas and hamlets scattered about in different parts of this island, but they contain nothing deserving of notice.

The inhabitants of Fuerteventura formerly had some good horses, of the breed both of Barbary and Spain; but the breed is since much degenerated in size, as well as dwindled to a small number. The people, indeed, prefer asses, as they are more serviceable in the hilly parts, and can be kept at a much cheaper rate.

The great scarcity of wood, shrubs and bushes occasion a scarcity of birds and wild fowl. Canary birds are the only ones found in any numbers. Geese and ducks are likewise wanting, from the great scarcity of water.

In this, as well as the neighbouring island of Lancerota, are the remains of many volcanos.

L A N C E R O T A

LIES in 28 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 13 deg. 5 min. west long. and is about 30 miles long and 22 broad. It is about 18 leagues south-east of Grand Canaria, and the whole island is parted in the middle by a ridge of rocks, on which feed goats, sheep and asses. Here are likewise some cattle, camels and genets. The vallies are dry and sandy, resembling the rye fields in England; but they yield tolerable good barley and wheat: the first harvest being about April, and the second in September. The principal commodities are goats flesh and orchel, and the whole is an estate or earldom, belonging to the family of Herrera, the head of that family being always lord of Fuerteventura and Lancerota. The people, however, in both islands have the liberty of appeal to the king's judges in Grand Canaria. Boats go from hence weekly to Grand Canaria, Teneriffe and Palma, laden chiefly with dried goats flesh, which is used in the manner of bacon, and is not bad eating.

In 1596 this island was attacked and taken by the English under the command of Leonidas, earl of Cumberland, who, after ransacking it, departed the island.

Lancerota is very high, and may be seen at a great distance, its appearance being black and barren. The principal port, which lies on the south-east side of the island, is called Porte de Naos, and the harbour is tolerably secure for small vessels; indeed, it is deemed the best belonging to the Canary Islands, and is much frequented for its conveniency in repairing and cleansing ships. This port is without any town, or indeed houses, except store-houses, magazines, and barracks for soldiers. The castle at the west end of the harbour is of no consequence, as a ship of force might easily batter it down. A channel divides Lancerota from the little island called Graciosa, which is uninhabited; and this channel is named the harbour of El Rio. Near this harbour is a salt-work in Lancerota, which turns to a tolerable account.

Kubicon, or Cayas, is the principal town of this island.

It is about six miles from Porto de Naos, and is what was formerly called Lancerota. At present it contains about 200 indifferent houses.

The inhabitants of this island chiefly use rain water, which is caught in pits and cisterns adapted for that purpose, as they have but few wells or springs. The breed of horses has dwindled and degenerated in this island, as well as in Fuerteventura. Asses are preferred here as they are there, and for the same reasons. The asses, indeed, in both these islands, are used not only for carrying burthens and riding, but for ploughing up the land; so that they are deemed of general utility.

The want of food here occasions a want of birds; and the deficiency of water a deficiency of ducks, geese, &c. The different appearance of the cattle, at the different seasons of the year, is very singular; for during the verdure of the spring they are plump, fat, and sleek; but in autumn, when the grass and herbage are withered by the heat of the sun, they resemble skeletons, have scarce spirits to work, and their flesh is unfit to eat.

Neither Lancerota or Fuerteventura have any venomous creature, except the black spider. This, however, is sufficient to terrify the people, as its sting is extremely painful, and very dangerous.

The seas intersecting and surrounding these islands afford the inhabitants plenty of fish, particularly cod, much finer than what is caught on the banks of Newfoundland; and a very singular fish, called the picudo, or sea pike, the bite of which is as venomous as that of a viper; yet, when dressed, it is pleasant and wholesome food.

Description of the Persons, Dress, Food, Dispositions, Manners, Customs, Manufactures, Commerce, &c. of the Inhabitants of the Canary Islands in general.

THE greatest part of the inhabitants of these islands are small of stature, well made, and have good features. Their complexions are very swarthy, their eyes full of fire, and their countenances expressive. They are fond of calling themselves Spaniards, and speak the Castilian language; the better sort of people with a good grace, but the vulgar very unintelligibly.

The better sort wear, in common, a camblet cloak, of a dark red or black colour; a linen night-cap, bordered with lace; and a broad flouched hat. When they pay visits, a coat, sword, and white peruke, are added; which latter makes a very strange appearance with their dark countenances: and what is still more singular, they keep their great heavy flouched hats upon their heads always in the house; but when they are out of doors they carry it under their arm.

The common people wear their own black bushy hair, and tack some of it behind the right ear. Their principal garment is a white loose coat, made in the manner of a French loose coat, with a friar's cape, and girded about the middle with a sash.

The women wear on their heads a piece of gauze, which falls down the shoulders, is pinned under the chin, and covers the neck and breast. A part of their dress is a broad brimmed flouched hat; but they use this with more propriety than the men; for abroad they wear it upon their heads, and so their faces are shielded from the scorching beams of the sun. Over the shoulders a mantle is thrown, its goodness being in proportion to the condition of the wearer. Jackets are worn instead of stays; but all are very fond of a great number of petticoats. The principal ladies of Canaria and Teneriffe dress after the fashions of France and England, and pay visits in chariots: but none walk the streets without being veiled; though some are so careless in the use of their veils, that they take care to let their faces and necks be seen. Some ladies have their hair curiously plaited, and fastened to the crown of the head with a gold comb. Their mantles are very rich; and they wear a profusion of jewels: but the clumsiness of dress, and awkwardness of gait, observable in both

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sexes, render their appearance rather ridiculous to strangers.

The lower class of people are afflicted with many noxious disorders, and are naturally very filthy. The gentry, however, affect great delicacy. Both sexes go every morning to hear mass; and most go before they take any refreshment. Their breakfast is usually chocolate. They dine at noon, and shut up the doors till three o'clock. People in good circumstances have four courses brought to table: the first is soup, the second roast meat, the third olio, and the fourth the desert. While drinking, their toasts are much like ours; but they cease drinking as soon as the cloth is removed. After dinner all the company wash their hands in one large utensil, and then go to sleep for about an hour. In winter evenings they regale with chocolate and sweetmeats; but in summer fine spring water is substituted instead of chocolate.

The people in general sleep on mattresses, spread on mats, and placed upon the floor. The sheets, pillows, quilt, &c. are fringed or pinked; but no curtains are used, as they deem them the harbours for fleas and bugs. The women sit upon cushions, on a raised part of the floor, either when they receive, or when they pay visits. The children are instructed in convents, and usually make a rapid progress; for it must be confessed that the people have a quick genius, particularly for poetry. The common amusements are singing, dancing, playing on the guitar, cards, wrestling, quoits, throwing at ball through a ring at a distance, &c. They take an airing on horseback, but generally travel with asses.

Each of the Canary Islands, as well as each town and family, has its peculiar titular saint; and the festivals of these saints are kept with great solemnity.

The people in general hold the employment of a butcher, taylor, miller, and porter, in the utmost contempt; and the officers of justice have a right to seize upon a person of any of these employments, when a criminal is put to death, and make him perform the office of executioner. For their hatred to these four employments they give the following reasons; that a butcher is barbarous, a taylor is effeminate, a miller is a thief, and a porter is a human beast of burthen.

The gentry in general, though proud, are polite; the lower class of people, though poor, are mannerly; and even beggars ask charity with a good grace, and, if refused, never behave with impertinence.

Private pilfering is very common here, but highway or street robberies are seldom or ever known. The only consequence of robbery, however, is a sound drubbing, or a short imprisonment. Duels are never heard of, but private murders are common, which evinces that the people have more malice than courage.

The inhabitants of the Canary Islands are, in general, temperate; or at least if they are otherwise, it is in private only; for nothing can be a greater stain there than to be seen drunk; and a man who can be proved a drunkard is not admitted to take his oath in any court of judicature. Hence those who are fond of liquor intoxicate themselves in their chambers, and then lie down in order to sleep themselves sober.

If a man falls in love with a young woman, and her parents refuse to consent to the union, she has liberty to complain to the curate of the parish, who takes her away, and places her in a convent, where she must remain till they consent to her marriage.

The natives of Fuerteventura and Lancerota differ in several particulars from those of the other islands; for they are tall, strong, robust, and of a very dark complexion; and the other Canarians deem them rude and unpolished with respect to themselves. They speak a barbarous kind of the Castilian, and dress like mean Spanish peasants. Their houses are built of stone and lime, covered with pantiles for the better sort of people, but only thatched for the meaner; and the floors are paved with flag stones. Their diet is as mean as their habitations. They hate improvements, because

they deem them innovations; and have so little curiosity, that none will visit Spain, if they can help it; and very few the other Canary Islands, unless obliged so to do by business.

The principal manufactures of all these islands are silk hose and garters, which are knit; quilts, taffeties, blankets, coarse cloths, &c. In the large towns men are weavers and tailors; but in the villages women only; and the exportation of raw silk is prohibited, in order to encourage the manufactories.

The commerce of the Canaries may be considered under five heads, viz. the domestic trade with each other, and from island to island; the trade to Europe, the Spanish West Indies, America, and the coast of Barbary.

The center of trade is Teneriffe. The principal commerce is carried on in foreign bottoms. The various imports are woollen goods, hardware, hats, red herrings, pilchards, wheat, &c. from Great Britain; butter, candles, pickled pork, pickled herrings, &c. from Ireland; gunpowder, cordage, coarse flax, &c. from Holland and Hamburgh; bar iron from Biscay; dried cod, rice, beef, pork, hams, bees-wax, deal boards, staves, wheat, flour, maize, &c. from the American colonies; and silks, velvets, oils, cordage, &c. from Barcelona, Seville, Majorca, Italy, and Cadiz. In return for these they export their various commodities and manufactures to the several countries from which they receive their imports.

SECTION II.

THE MATTERA OR MADEIRA ISLANDS.

IT is the general opinion of writers that these islands were known to the ancients, but lay concealed for many generations. They differ with respect to their discovery; some attributing it to the Portuguese in 1519, others to an Englishman in 1344. However that may be, the Portuguese took possession of them, and still form the principal part of the inhabitants. These islands are situated in 32 deg. 27 min. north lat. and from 18 deg. 30 min. to 19 deg. 30 min. west longitude.

The largest of these islands, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeira, or rather Mattera, (a Portuguese word, signifying a wood or forest, from its being over-run with trees,) is about 75 miles in length, and upwards of 36, in some places, in breadth. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from east to west, the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated, and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. The first settlers, to clear the lands, set fire to the woods.

Fine springs abound here in almost every part; and, from the grapes which the vines produce, is made a vast quantity of the most delicious wines.

Our celebrated countryman *Captain Cook*, to whom we recur with pleasure upon every possible occasion, in the account of his first voyage, writes concerning this island to the following import.

"This island has a beautiful appearance from the sea, those parts of hills which present themselves being covered with vines.

"The inhabitants of Madeira have no article of trade but wine, which is made by pressing the juice out in a square wooden vessel. The persons employed having taken off their shoes and jackets, get into it, and, with their elbows and feet, press out as much of the juice as they can. In like manner the stalks, being tied together, are pressed under a square piece of wood, by a lever, with a stone fastened to the end of it.

"There are no wheel carriages of any sort, nor have the people any thing that resembles them, except a hollow board or sledge, upon which those wine vessels are drawn that are too big to be carried by hand. They

have also horses and mules, very proper for their roads; but their wine is, notwithstanding, brought to town from the vineyards where it is made in vessels of goat-skins, which are carried by men on their heads.

"Nature has been very liberal in her gifts to Madeira. The inhabitants are not without ingenuity, but they want industry. The soil is so very rich, and there is such a variety in the climate, that there is scarcely any article, either of the necessaries or luxuries of life, which cannot be cultivated in the island. Pine-apples and mangoes grow almost spontaneously in the town, and great variety of fruit upon the hills. Corn is also very large and plenty.

"The beef, mutton, and pork, are remarkably good. Foncho, which is fennel in Portuguese, gave name to the town of Fonchial. It is seated at the bottom of a bay, indifferently built: the streets are narrow, and very wretchedly paved. In the churches there are great numbers of ornaments, with pictures and images of saints, which, for the most part, are poorly executed. A better taste prevails in some of the convents, particularly that of the Franciscans, where simplicity and neatness unite. The infirmary does honour to the architect, and is the most capital edifice in the whole place. There are many very high hills: Pico Ruivo is near 5100 feet in height, perpendicularly from its base. The inhabitants are computed to be between 70 and 80,000; and the revenue arising from the customs is supposed to amount to 20 or 30,000l. sterling per annum. They abound in water, wine, fruit, and onions. Sweetmeats of various sorts are also to be had; but permission must be obtained from the governor for poultry and fresh meat."

Captain Cook says, there is great reason to suppose that this whole island was, at some remote period, thrown up by the explosion of subterraneous fire, as every stone seen upon it appeared to have been burnt, and even the sand itself to be nothing more than ashes.

The people here trade among themselves by barter. The ordinary food of the poorer people, in the time of vintage, is little else than bread and rich grapes. Were it not for this abstemiousness, the danger of fevers in the hot seasons would be rarely avoided: therefore, even the rich in the hot months are very spare in their diet, and drink but moderately.

The people in general affect great gravity in their deportment, and usually go clad in black; but they cannot part from the spado and dagger, which even servants wear; so that you may see a footman waiting at table with a sword by his side, at least a yard long, and a great basket hilt to it.

The houses in general are plain, as the inhabitants put themselves to no great expence either in erecting or furnishing them. The windows are latticed instead of being glazed, and are secured by wooden shutters at night.

In marriages affection is never once thought of here; the principal enquiries are into family, descent, and circumstances. The women are prohibited from marrying Englishmen, unless they consent to change their religion, and turn Roman Catholics.

Murder is very frequent here, on account of the great number of places deemed sanctuaries, and the ease with which a murderer can thereby screen himself from justice. But if the criminal person is taken before he can fly to sanctuary, the punishment is only either banishment or confinement, both which may be evaded by a pecuniary composition.

The clergy here are exceeding numerous, and generally rich; but none who are descended from Moors or Jews are admitted to take orders. The churches are made repositories for the dead. The corpse is curiously dressed and adorned; yet, in the interment, flre of lime is used, in order to consume the body with all imaginable dispatch, which usually happens in a fortnight; so that there is then room for another corpse. The bodies of Protestants are not allowed to be buried, but must be thrown into the sea, unless a large quantity

money is paid to the clergy, when they are permitted to be interred in consecrated ground.

The island called Porto Santo, which is only eight miles in circumference, lies at a small distance from Madeira properly so called, and is under the same jurisdiction. It is very fertile, and abounds in excellent honey and wax.

There is another island, but it is scarce worth notice, being not only of very small extent, but likewise entirely barren; for which the Portuguese have given it the expressive appellation of the Desolate or Desert Isle.

To our general account of the Madeira Islands, we are induced to subjoin, a minute and circumstantial narrative of the manner in which they were discovered, as we presume, from the interesting incidents which attended it, that it cannot fail of conducing to the entertainment of the reader.

In the reign of Edward III. king of England, a young gentleman, named Robert Machin, conceived a violent passion for Ann D'Arfer, a beautiful and accomplished lady of a noble family. Machin, with respect to birth and fortune, was inferior to the lady; but his personal qualifications overcome every scruple on that account, and she rewarded his ardour with a reciprocal affection. Her friends, however, did not behold the young gentleman through the medium of passion: they fancied their blood would be contaminated by an alliance with one of a lower rank, and therefore determined to sacrifice the happiness of the young lady to the hereditary pride of blood, and the mercenary motives of interest. Fraught with these ideas, a warrant was procured from the king, under the sanction of which Machin was apprehended, and kept in close confinement, till the object of his affections was married to a nobleman, whose chief merit lay in his honorary title and large possessions.

Immediately after the nuptial ceremony was over, the peer took his beautiful bride with him to a strong and superb castle, which he had in the neighbourhood of Bristol; and then the unfortunate lover was released from his cruel imprisonment.

Machin, being at liberty, was acquainted that his mistress had been compelled to give her hand to another. This rendered him almost frantic, and he vowed to revenge the violence done to the lady, and the injury which he himself had sustained.

With this view he imparted his design to some of his friends and companions, who swore to accompany him to Bristol, and assist him in whatever enterprize he undertook. One of his comrades contrived to get himself hired by the nobleman as a servant, and by that means being introduced into the family, he soon found an opportunity to let the lady know the sentiments and intentions of her lover, when she fully entered into all his projects, and promised to comply with whatever he should desire.

To facilitate the design, the lady appeared more cheerful than usual, which lulled asleep every suspicion that her lord might otherwise have entertained; and intreated permission to ride out daily to take the air, for the benefit of her health, which request her consort easily granted. This point being gained, she did not fail to make the most of it, by riding out every morning, accompanied by one servant only, which was her lover's companion; he having been previously pitched upon, by her contrivance, always to attend her.

All things being prepared, she one day rode out as usual, when her attendant conducted her to his friend, who waited at the sea-side to receive her. They all three immediately entered a boat, and soon reached a ship that lay at some distance ready for their reception.

Machin having the object of his wishes on board immediately, with the assistance of his associates, set sail, intending to proceed to France; but all on board being ignorant of maritime affairs, and the wind blowing a hard gale, they missed their port, and the next morning, to their astonishment, found themselves driven into the main ocean. In this miserable condition they

abandoned themselves to despair, and committed their fates to the mercy of the waves. Without a pilot, almost destitute of provisions, and quite devoid of hope, they were tossed about for the space of thirteen days. At length, when the morning of the fourteenth day began to dawn, they fancied they could descry something very near them that had the appearance of land; and when the sun rose, to their great joy, they could distinctly perceive it was such. Their pleasure, however, was somewhat interrupted by the reflection that it was a strange country; for they plainly perceived it was covered with a variety of trees, with whose appearance and nature they were totally unacquainted.

The sloop being got out, some of them landed, in order to make their observations on the country, when returning soon after to the ship, they spoke in raptures of the place; but at the same time declared they believed it to be uninhabited.

Machin, with his mistress, and some of his friends, then landed, leaving the rest to take care of the ship. The country appeared beautifully diversified with hills and dales, shaded with various trees, and watered by many clear meandering streams. Several kinds of wild beasts approached without offering any violence to them; and the most beautiful birds, of different species, perched upon their heads, arms, and hands, unapprehensive of danger.

Penetrating farther through the woody recesses, they entered a fine meadow, admirably encircled with a border of laurels, finely enamelled with various flowers, and happily watered with a winding crystal rivulet. Upon an eminence, in the midst of this meadow, they saw a lofty spreading tree, the beauty of which invited them to repose under its shade, and partake of the shelter it would afford them from the piercing rays of the sun. Beneath this tree they at length determined to make a temporary residence, and providing themselves with boughs from the neighbouring woods, they built several small huts, or rather harbours. In this place they passed their time very agreeably, and made frequent excursions into the adjacent country, admiring its strange productions, and various beauties. Their happiness, however, was of no very long continuance; for one night a terrible storm arose from the north-east, which blew the ship from her anchor, and drove her to sea. The crew were obliged to submit to the mercy of the elements, when they were driven to the coast of Morocco, and the ship being stranded, all the crew were carried into captivity.

The next morning, when Machin and his companions missed the ship, they concluded she had foundered, and gone to the bottom. This new calamity plunged them into the deepest melancholy, and proved, in particular, so affecting to the lady, that she sunk under it. She had, indeed, before continually fed her grief, by sad presages of the enterprize's ending in some fatal catastrophe to all concerned; but the shock of the late disaster struck her dumb, so that she expired in three days afterwards in the most bitter agonies. Machin was so affected by her death, that he survived her but five days, notwithstanding all that his companions could do to afford him consolation. Previous to his death he begged them to place his body in the same grave with hers, which they had made at the foot of an altar, erected under the beautiful lofty tree before-mentioned. They afterwards erected a large wooden cross upon it; and near that an inscription, drawn up by Machin himself, containing a succinct account of the whole adventure; and concluding with a request, that if any Christians should come there to settle, they would build a church upon the spot, and dedicate it to Jesus Christ.

After the death of Machin, his remaining companions determined to attempt returning to England in the sloop, which had been so well secured near the shore, as not to be in the least damaged by the storm which had driven away the ship; but happening to take the same course the others had been forced upon, they, unluckily for

for themselves, arrived in like manner upon some part of the coast of Morocco, met with exactly the same fate, were seized in a similar manner, and carried to the same prison. In the place of their confinement, besides their own companions, they met with several other Christian slaves, particularly one John de Morales, a Spaniard of Seville. This man was an excellent sailor, and took a peculiar delight in hearing the English captives recount their adventures, by which means he learned, and retained in his memory, the situation and peculiar marks of this new discovered country.

In order to connect the above narrative of the first discovery of the Madeiras with what is termed the second discovery, but which, to speak with greater precision, is the completion of the first, it will be necessary to look back a little into the leading incidents which brought about the latter.

John I. king of Portugal, having entered into a war with the Moors, passed over into Africa with a formidable army, A. D. 1415, and laid siege to and took Ceuta. In this expedition he was accompanied by his sons, one of whom, Prince Henry, took great delight in the study of the mathematical sciences, particularly geography and navigation.

Upon this occasion he had great opportunity of conversing with the Moors and African Jews; and informing himself, by their means, of the situation of several foreign countries, of their coasts, the seas about them, &c. he conceived an insatiable thirst for making new conquests, and from this time determined to devote his attention to the discovery of unknown countries.

In consequence of this resolution, after the reduction of Ceuta, he retired to the Algarves, where, within a league of Cape St. Vincent, he founded a new town, built a fort to defend it, and determined from thence to send out ships upon discoveries. The person he intended to employ upon these occasions, as chief commander, was a gentleman of extraordinary abilities, named Juan Gonsalvo Zarco, who became famous, not only for his maritime discoveries, but for being the first person who introduced the use of artillery on board ships. In 1418 he discovered Puerto Santo, one of the Madeiras; and, in 1420, he passed the straits, and surveyed a considerable extent of the coast of Africa. In the interim a Spanish prince dying, left, by his will, a large sum of money for the purpose of redeeming Spanish Christians who were kept as slaves in Morocco. Terms being agreed upon between the emperor of Morocco and the commissioners for the redemption of those captives, a Spanish ship was sent to Morocco to fetch home the redeemed Christians, among whom was the before mentioned John de Morales. This ship, on its return to Spain, happened to fall in with the squadron commanded by Juan Gonsalvo Zarco, who was then passing the straits to make observations on the coast of Africa, as we before noticed.

Spain and Portugal being at that time at war, Juan Gonsalvo Zarco made a prize of the Spanish ship; but finding it contained only redeemed captives, he was touched with compassion at the miseries they had already suffered during their slavery, and generously dismissed them, taking out only John de Morales, whom he found to be not only an able sailor, and an expert pilot, but a very intelligent person.

Morales being acquainted with the reason of his detention, and the discoveries that the Portuguese were upon, instead of being grieved, was mightily rejoiced, and offered voluntarily to enter into the service of Prince Henry. He then told Juan Gonsalvo of the island which the English had newly discovered, recounted the story of the two unfortunate lovers, and related every thing which he had heard from Machin's companions while in slavery.

Juan Gonsalvo was so mightily pleased at this relation, that he tacked about, and returned to the new town which Prince Henry had built, and which was called

Terca Nabal. On his arrival he introduced Morales to the prince, when the Spaniard again recounted all he had before told to Juan Gonsalvo. The prince thought this worthy of becoming a national affair, and therefore communicating the whole to the king his father, and the Portuguese ministry, they determined to pursue this discovery, and for that purpose fitted out a good ship, well manned and provided, and a sloop to go with oars, when occasion required; and the command of the whole was given to Juan Gonsalvo.

On discovering Puerto Santo, a short time before, Juan Gonsalvo had left some Portuguese on that island; and judging by Morales's account of the situation of the island they were in quest of, that it could not be far from Puerto Santo, he determined to sail thither.

On his arrival at that island, the Portuguese, whom he had left behind, informed him, that they had observed to the north-east a thick impenetrable darkness, which constantly hung upon the sea, and extended itself upward to the heavens; that they never knew it to be diminished, but often heard from thence a strange kind of noise, which they could not account for.

Morales seemed to be convinced that this was the island they were in search of, and Juan Gonsalvo was inclined to adopt his opinion; but all the rest were terrified at the accounts they had heard. It was therefore concluded to remain at Puerto Santo till the change of the moon, to see what effect that would have upon the shade, or whether the noise would cease: but perceiving no alteration of any kind, the panic increased among the generality of the adventurers. Morales, however, stood firm to his opinion of that being the land they were looking for, and very sensibly observed, that, according to the accounts he had received from the English, the ground was covered over with lofty shady trees, and that it was no wonder, therefore, that it should be exceeding damp, and the humid vapours might exhale from it by the power of the sun, which spreading themselves to the sky, occasioned the dark cloud they saw; and that with respect to the noise, it might be occasioned by certain currents dashing against the rocks on its coast.

Juan Gonsalvo, however, determined to proceed, and setting sail the next day, he at length made land; and the fear of those who had been all along terrified now vanished. The first point they saw they named St. Lawrence's Point. Doubling this they found rising land to the southward, where Morales and others were sent in a sloop to reconnoitre the coast, and came to a bay which seemed to answer the description given by the English. Here they landed; and finding the cross and inscription over the grave of the two lovers, they returned to Juan Gonsalvo, with an account of their success. Juan Gonsalvo immediately landed, and took possession of the place, in the names of John I. king of Portugal, and Prince Henry, his son. Having built an altar near the grave of the lovers, they searched about the island, in order to discover if it contained any cattle, but not finding any, they coasted westward, till they came to a place where four fine rivers ran into the sea, of the waters of which Juan Gonsalvo filled some bottles, to carry as a present to Prince Henry. Proceeding farther, they came to a fine valley, which was intersected by a beautiful river, and after that to a pleasant spot covered with trees, some of which being fallen down, Juan Gonsalvo ordered a cross to be erected of the timber, and called the place Santa Cruz.

They now began to look out for a place proper to fix their residence in while they staid, and at length found a fine track of land, not so woody as the rest of the country, but covered over with fennel, which, in the Portuguese language, is called Funchal; from whence the town of Funchal, afterwards built on the spot, took its name.

After having viewed other parts of the island, and daily had occasion for new admiration of the beauties continually discovered, Juan Gonsalvo returned to Portugal, and arrived at Lisbon the latter end of August, in

in the year 1420, without having lost a single man in the whole enterprize.

A day of audience being appointed for Juan Gonfalso to make a report of his voyage, the king gave the name of Madeira to the new discovered island, on account of the very great quantity of excellent wood found upon it. An order was soon after made for Juan Gonfalso to return to Madeira in the spring ensuing, with the title of captain governor of Madeira, to which title the heir of his family at present adds that of count.

Juan Gonfalso set sail on his second voyage in the month of May, A. D. 1421, taking with him the greatest part of his family; and arriving at Madeira he cast anchor in the Road till then called the English Port; but Juan Gonfalso, in honour of the first discoverer, then called it Puerto de Machino, from which name it was corrupted to Machico; which it bears to this day.

Juan Gonfalso then ordered the large spreading beautiful tree before-mentioned, under whose branches Machin and his companions had taken up their residence, to be cut down, and a small church to be built with the timber; which, in conformity to Machin's request, he dedicated to Jesus Christ, and interposed the pavement of the choir with the bones of the two unfortunate lovers.

He then laid the foundation of the town of Funchal, which soon grew famous; and his wife Constantia, who was with him, dedicated the altar of the new wooden church to St. Catherine.

On the death of John I. king of Portugal, his eldest son and successor, Duarte, in consideration of the great sums of money expended in peopling this island by prince Henry, his brother, gave him the revenues of it for life. He likewise gave the spiritualities of it to the order of Christ, which endowment was afterwards confirmed by Alonso the Fifteenth.

SECTION III.

CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS.

THESE islands owe their appellation to Cape Verd on the African coast, opposite to which they lie at the distance of 300 miles, between 14 and 10 deg. north lat. and 16 and 36 deg. west long. They were discovered by the Portuguese in 1460. They are in number about twenty, of which the following are the principal, viz.

May, or Mayo	St. John, or San Juan.
San Jago, or St. James's	St. Nicholas
Sal, or Salt	St. Vincent
Bona Vista, or Good Sight	St. Anthony
St. Philip's, otherwise called	St. Lucia
Fuego, or Isle of Fire	Brava.

The climate of these islands is exceeding hot, and in some of them unwholesome. The soil differs with the climate; for though several of them are very stony and barren, yet the principal part are fertile, and produce various sorts of grain and fruits, particularly rice, maize, or Indian wheat, bananas, lemons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, cocoa-nuts, figs and melons. They have also calavances, a sort of pulse like French beans, and great quantities of pumpkins, which form the common food of the inhabitants.

These islands produce two other kinds of fruit of a remarkable nature, viz. the custard apple and the papah. The former of these is as large as a pomegranate, and much of the same colour. The outside hulk, shell or rind, is in substance and thickness between the shell of a pomegranate and the peel of a Seville orange, softer than the former, yet more brittle than the latter. The coat, or rind, is also remarkable for being covered with small regular knobs or risings; and the inside of the fruit is full of a white soft pulp,

which in its form, colour, and taste, greatly resembles a custard, from whence it received its name, which was probably first given it by the Europeans. It has in the middle a few small black stones, but no core, for the whole of it is entire pulp. The tree that bears this fruit is about the size of a quince-tree, and has long slender branches that spread a considerable way from the trunk. The fruit grows at the extremity of these branches, upon a stalk about nine or ten inches long. It is to be observed, that only some of these branches bear fruit, for though these trees are large, yet in general each tree does not produce above 20 or 30 apples.

The papah is a fruit about the size of a musk-melon and resembles it in shape and colour both within and without: only in the middle, instead of flat kernels, which the melons have, these have a quantity of small blackish seeds, about the size of pepper-corns, the taste of which is much the same as that spice. The fruit itself, when ripe, is sweet, soft and luscious.

The Cape de Verd Islands also abound with several sorts of poultry, particularly curlews, Guinea hens and flamingos, the latter of which are very numerous. The flamingo is a large bird, much like a heron in shape, but bigger and of a reddish colour. They go in flocks, but are so shy that it is very difficult to catch them. They build their nests in shallow ponds; where there is much mud, which they scrape together, making little hillocks like small islands, that appear about a foot and a half above the surface of the water. They make the foundations of these hillocks broad, bringing them up taper to the top, where they leave a small hollow pit to lay their eggs in. They never lay more than two eggs and seldom less. The young ones cannot fly till they are almost full grown; but they run with prodigious swiftness. Their flesh is lean and of a dingy colour, but it neither tastes fishy, or any way unpleasant. Their tongues are broad and long, having a large lump of fat at the root which is delicious in its taste, and so greatly admired that a dish of them will produce a considerable sum of money.

They have also several other sorts of fowls, as pigeons, turtle-doves, &c.

There are many wild animals in these islands, particularly lions, tygers, and camels, the latter of which are remarkably large. There are also great numbers of monkeys, baboons, and civit cats, and most of the islands abound with various reptiles. The tame animals are horses, asses, sheep, mules, cows, goats and hogs; and here the European ships bound for the East Indies usually stop to take in fresh water and provisions, with which they are supplied in great abundance.

The sea is plentifully stocked with fish of various sorts; and there is such plenty of turtle here, that several foreign ships come yearly to catch them. In the wet season the turtles go ashore to lay their eggs in the sand, which they leave to be hatched by the heat of the sun. The inhabitants go out in the night, and catch the turtles by turning them on their backs with poles: for they are so large that they cannot do it with their hands. The flesh of the turtles, well cured, is as great a supply to the American plantations as cod-fish is to Europe.

The Europeans settled in these islands profess the Roman Catholic religion. The natives are all negroes, and being subject to the Portuguese, have their religion and language. Both men and women are stout, lusty, and well limbed; and they are in general of a civil and quiet disposition. Their dress, particularly of those of the island of St. John) is very trifling, consisting only of a piece of cotton cloth wound round the waist. The women sometimes throw it over their heads, and the men across the shoulders. Neither sex wear shoes or stockings, except on certain festivals. The men are particularly fond of wearing breeches, if they can get them; and are very happy, be they ever so ragged, so that they have but a waistcoat and a flap before.

Having thus taken notice of the general matters relative to the islands, we shall now describe the respective particulars belonging to each, beginning with

M A Y, O R M A Y O,

IS situated in 15 deg. north latitude, and 22 deg. west longitude. It is about seven leagues in circumference, of a roundish form, and has several small rocky points that shoot out from it into the sea. On the island are two hills of a considerable height, one of which is flat at the top; but the other terminates with a point, and is very dangerous to ascend. The rest of the island is for the most part level, and a tolerable height from the sea. The soil is in general very dry and barren, owing to the want of water. There is but one small spring in the whole island, which is situated about the center of it, and from whence proceeds a stream of water that runs through a valley between the hills.

There are but few trees here, and those chiefly within the island. Near the sea are some shrubs, which produce a sort of silky cotton: they are about four feet high; and the cotton grows in cods as large as an apple, but of a long shape, which, when ripe, open at one end, parting leisurely into four quarters. This cotton is of very little value, and is therefore used only for the stuffing of pillows, or other purposes equally trifling. Near the shore are also some bushes of the right cotton shrub; but the greatest quantity of them are planted in the middle of the island, and are carefully attended to by the inhabitants, cotton cloth being their chief manufacture.

This island abounds in salt, for which the English trade with the inhabitants. The salt is made by the heat of the sun from the sea water, which, at spring tides, is received into a sort of a pan formed by a sand bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. The salt costs only a small gratuity for raking it together, wheeling out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats. The Negro governor, however, who is deputed by the Portuguese governor, expects a small present from every commander that loads with that commodity.

ST. JAGO, OR ST. JAMES'S ISLAND,

IS one of the best inhabited of all the Cape de Verd Islands. The capital town, called after its name, is situated in 15 deg. north latitude. It stands against the sides of two mountains, between which there is a deep valley 200 yards wide, that runs within a quarter of a mile of the sea. In that part of the valley next the sea is a straggling street, with houses on each side, and a rivulet of water in the bottom, which empties itself into a fine small cove or sandy bay, where the sea is generally very smooth, so that ships ride there with great safety. Near the landing-place from this bay is a small fort, where a guard is constantly kept; and near it is a battery mounted with a few small cannon. The town contains about 300 houses, all built of rough stone; and it has one small church and a convent.

The inhabitants are, in general, very poor, having but little trade. Their chief manufacture is striped cotton cloth, which the Portuguese ships purchase of them in their way to Brazil, in return for which they supply them with several European commodities.

Captain Cook visited this island on his second voyage, in the account of which he says, "Port Praya [where they anchored] is a small bay, situated about the middle of the south-side of the Island of St. Jago. The water is tolerable, but scarce, and bad getting off, on account of a great surf on the beach. The refreshments to be got here are bullocks, hogs, goats, sheep, poultry, and fruits. The goats are of the antelope kind, so extraordinarily lean, that hardly any thing can equal them; and the bullocks, hogs, and sheep, are not much better. Bullocks must be purchased with money; the price is 12 Spanish dollars a head, weighing between 250 and

300 pounds. Other articles may be got from the natives in exchange for old cloaths, &c. The sale of bullocks is confined to a company of merchants, to whom this privilege is granted, and who keep an agent residing on the spot."

The town of Praya is but small, and does not contain any remarkable building except a fort, situated on the top of a hill, which commands the harbour.

The natives of this town and St. Jago are, in general, black, or at least of a mixed colour, except some few of the better sort that reside in the latter, among whom are the governor, the bishop, and some of the padres or priests.

The people in general are naturally of a thievish disposition, so that strangers, when they deal with them, should be very careful, for if they see an opportunity, they will steal their goods and run away. Those of St. Jago town, living under the governor's eye, are more orderly, though generally very poor, having but little trade.

S A L, O R S A L T I S L A N D,

RECEIVED its name from the great quantity of salt naturally produced here from sea-water. It is the windermost of all the Cape de Verd Islands, and lies in 17 deg. north latitude, and 5 deg. 18 min. west longitude, from the Cape. It is mostly low land, having only five hills, and stretches, from north to south, about eight or nine leagues, but its breadth does not exceed one league and a half.

This island is barren, and almost uninhabited, there being only a few people that live in wretched huts near the sea-side, whose business is to gather the salt for those ships that occasionally call here for that article. It was formerly well stocked with goats, cows, and asses, but now there are only a few of the former, which is the principal food of its miserable inhabitants.

Captain Roberts, who landed in this island, relates the following story, which, he says, he was told by one of the blacks that then resided here. "About the year 1705, (says he,) not long before I went ashore, the island was entirely deserted, for want of rain, by all its inhabitants, except one old man that resolved to die on it, which he did the same year. The drought had been so extreme for some time, that most of the cows and goats died for want of sustenance; but rain falling they increased apace till about three years afterwards, when they were reduced by an odd accident. A French ship coming to fish for turtle, by stress of weather, or some other means, left 30 blacks behind her, which she had brought from St. Antonio to carry on the fishing. These people, finding nothing else, fed mostly on wild goats, till they had destroyed them all but two, one male, and the other female: these were then on the island, and kept generally upon one mountain. A short time after an English ship, bound for the Island of St. Mayo, perceiving the smoke of several fires, sent their boat on shore, thinking they might be some ship's company wrecked on the island, put in there: when they understood the situation of the people, they commiserated their case, took them all in, and set them on their own island."

On the south-west side of the island is a small port, near which there is a trifling island, with a sand-bank, in a kind of bay: and a little farther to the southward is a safe road for ships.

On the shore of this island are found great quantities of turtle, some of which are exceeding large. There is also abundance of land crabs; and the sea abounds with various kinds of fish.

BONA VISTA, OR GOOD SIGHT,

IS situated in 16 deg. 10 min. north lat. and 5 deg. 14 min. west long. from the Cape, and so called on account of its being the first of these islands that the Portuguese discovered. Its length is not certainly known,

known, but it is supposed to be about 60 miles in circumference. On the north coast of this island is a ledge of white rocks, and the eastern coast is bounded by sandy downs; but, within land, the country is in general very mountainous. On the south-west side of it is a good road and harbour, where ships may anchor in 5 to 16 fathom water, on a sandy bottom.

This island produces great quantities of indigo, and more cotton than all the Cape de Verd Islands besides; yet it is a difficult matter to get a supply of it: for the men are so indolent that they will not gather the cotton till a ship is arrived to purchase it: nor will the women spin it till absolute necessity obliges them.

The natives of this island are particularly fond of the English, whom they greatly endeavour to imitate; and the men generally dress after the European fashion. When opportunity offers they buy clothes of the English, and these they greatly prefer to their own, though made as near as possible after the same fashion.

St. PHILIP, otherwise called FUEGO, or the ISLE of FIRE,

IS remarkable for a volcano, which continually emits sulphurous exhalations, and sometimes the eruptions are so violent that the adjacent parts are, in a manner, covered with pumice stones.

The wind blows very strong round this island, and the shore being on a slant, the water is very deep; so that no ground is to be found with the lines, except just next the castle.

This island is very deficient of water, there not being a single running brook throughout it; notwithstanding which it is tolerably fertile, and produces great quantities of pumpions, water-melons, feshoons and maize, but no bananas or plantains, and scarce any fruit trees, except wild figs: in some of their gardens, however, they have guava trees, oranges, lemons and limes. They have likewise some good vineyards; but they make no more wine than what will just serve for their own consumption.

The principal inhabitants of the island are negroes, there not being above one white to an hundred blacks.

They are all Roman Catholics, though some of them intermix with that religion many pagan superstitions.

They make cotton cloths for their own use, and breed great numbers of mules, which they sell to other nations.

When the Portuguese first went to people this island they took with them negro slaves, and a stock of cows, horses, asses and hogs; but the king himself furnished the place with goats, which ran wild in the mountains. There are many of the latter animals here at the present time, and the profits arising from their skins are reserved to the crown of Portugal. The person who has the management of this revenue is called captain of the mountains, nor dare any person kill one of them without his licence.

St. JOHN, OR SAN JUAN.

THE island of St. John is situated in 15 deg. 25 min. north lat. and 7 deg. 2 min. west long. from Cape de Verd. The land of this island is very high, the hills rising pyramidically one above the other. It abounds in pumpions, water-melons, potatoes, bananas, maize, feshoons, cows, horses, asses, hogs, &c. Hunting, or killing of goats are privileges belonging peculiarly to the governor only, and none are permitted to keep hunting dogs except the governor; these precautions having been taken in order to preserve the breed. When the governor is disposed to make a hunt, all the hunters and hunting dogs are assembled; and, after the chase, being again met together, the governor parts some of the venison among them as he pleases, sending home the rest in order to distribute it among the old, infirm and necessitous.

Salt-petre abounds here more than in any of the other of the Cape de Verd Islands.

The seas about St. John abound with fish, and the principal employment amongst the natives is fishing; hence they miss no opportunities of wrecks, or, when ships touch here, to procure all the bits of iron they can. Most of the fish here have remarkable large sharp teeth; and the baits used are generally crabs and insects.

The natives usually go and get a quantity of salt early in the morning; fish the greatest part of the day; dry, split, and salt their fish in the evening; and, having heaped them up, let them lie in the salt all night. On the ensuing morning they spread them out to dry in the sun, and then they are fit to use whenever wanted. The baleas, a sort of whale grampus, is very common near this island; and some affirm that the ambergris is the sperm of this creature. A great quantity of ambergris was formerly found about this island, but it is less plentiful at present. Capt. Roberts says, that some years before he was there, Juan Carneira, a Portuguese, who was banished from Lisbon for some crime, having procured a little sloop or shallop, traded among these islands; meeting, at length, with a piece of ambergris of an uncommon bigness, he not only procured his liberty, and leave to return before the term of his exile was expired, but had sufficient left, after defraying all charges, to put himself into an eligible way of living; and a rock near to which he found the ambergris, is called by his name to this day.

The natives are quite black, and the most innocent and harmless, as well as ignorant and superstitious, of any of the inhabitants of the Cape de Verd Islands. They are humble, charitable, humane, and hospitable; pay a particular respect to their equals, reverence their elders, dutiful to their parents, and submissive to their superiors.

St. NICHOLAS.

THE Island of St. Nicholas is the largest of all the Cape de Verd Islands, St. Jago excepted. The land is high, and rises like a sugar-loaf; but the summit of the most elevated part is flat. The coast of this island is entirely clear from rocks and shoals. The Bay of Paraghisi is very safe, but the other roads are insecure till the trade winds are settled. There is a valley in this island which has a fine spring of water in it; and many persons employ themselves in supplying different parts with that useful fluid, with which they load asses, and carry it a considerable way at a cheap rate. Water may likewise be obtained by digging a well in almost any part of the island.

The only place worthy of notice is the town of St. Nicholas, which is close built and populous; but all the houses, and even the church, are covered with thatch. The celebrated pirate Avery, having once received some offence from the inhabitants, burnt this town; but it was afterwards rebuilt, much in the same manner, and to the same extent.

The inhabitants of St. Nicholas are nearly black, with frizzled hair. They speak the Portuguese language tolerable well, but are thievish and blood-thirsty. The women here are more ingenious, and better housewives, than in any other of the Cape de Verd Islands. Most families have horses, hogs, and poultry; and many of the people of St. Nicholas understand the art of boat-building, in which the inhabitants of the other islands are deficient. They likewise make good cloths, and even cloaths, being tolerable taylors, manufacture cotton quilts, knit cotton stockings, tan leather, and make good shoes.

St. Nicholas abounds in oranges, lemons, plantains, bananas, pumpions, musk and water melons, sugar-canes, vines, gum-dragon, feshoons, maize, &c. The people are strong Roman Catholics, but their dispositions are so obstinate, that their priests have enough to do to rule them.

ST. VINCENT.

ST. Vincent is five leagues in length. On the north-west side of it there is a bay, a league and a half broad at the entrance, surrounded with high mountains, and stretching to the middle of the island. This bay is sheltered from the westerly and north-westerly winds by the high mountains of the isle of St. Vincent; so that it is the safest harbour of any in all these islands: and it is of difficult access, because of the furious winds that blow with the utmost impetuosity from the mountains along the coast. There are several other small bays on the south-side of the island, where ships may anchor, and thither the Portuguese generally go to load hides. There is also fresh water in a valley, which is seen to spout out of the ground when they dig a little. The south-east side of this island is a sandy shore; but there is not a drop of water on the hills, or in the deep vallies.

ST. ANTHONY.

ST. Anthony is the most northerly of all the Cape de Verd Islands, and lies under the 18th degree of north latitude, seven miles from St. Vincent, with a channel between them, which runs from the south-west to the north-east. There are two high mountains in this island, one of which is nearly as high as the Peak of Teneriffe, and seems always enveloped in clouds. The inhabitants are about 500 in number; and, on the north-west side of the island, there is a little village consisting of about 20 houses or cottages, and inhabited by near fifty families of negroes and white people, who are all wretchedly poor, and speak the Portuguese language. On the north side there is a road for shipping, and a collection of water in a plain lying between high mountains, the water running from all sides in the rainy season; but the people are greatly distressed for water in the dry season. The principal people here are a governor, a captain, a priest, and a school-master.

ST. LUCIA

IS about eight or nine leagues long. On the south-east end of it are two small isles, very near each other. On the east-south-east side is the harbour, where the shore is of white sand. Here lies a small island, round which there is a very good bottom for anchoring. There is also a very good road over against the island of St. Vincent, where ships may anchor in twenty fathom water.

BRAVA.

BRAVA, of the Savage or Desert Island, is about four leagues to the south-west of Puego. There are two or three small islands to the north of it. On the west side of it there is a very commodious road for such ships as want to get water. The best harbour lies on the south-east side of the island, where ships may anchor next to the shore in fifteen fathoms water. There is an hermitage and a hamlet just above the harbour.

SECTION IV.

THE ISLAND OF ST. HELENA.

THIS island is situated in 16 deg. south lat. and 6 deg. 35 min. west longitude. It seems admirably adapted for the recreation of seamen in their long passages through the southern seas. The sailing into the port is truly romantic. St. Helena is situated in the serenest climate, and is delightfully temperate. The surface is a good mould, and would produce all kinds of grain, was it not infested by mice and rats, which devour it as soon as sown. The inhabitants, therefore, are obliged to eat yams instead of bread some

part of the year, their meal and corn being brought annually in the storeships from England. They have also a tolerable good supply of rice, which the East India company's ships bring from Bengal. Every family has two houses, their town habitation being in St. James's Valley, where they instantly repair, on the arrival of a ship, to regale the seafaring people with the produce of their farms. Every house is let out into lodgings, which are very dear. Their profits must be great, particularly when it is considered they raise all their own stock, enjoy it with their lodgers, and make them likewise pay most extravagantly dear for it.

This island is said to have been first discovered and settled by the Portuguese on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine, for which reason the Portuguese gave it her name, which it still bears. But it being afterwards deserted by them it lay waste till the Dutch, finding it convenient to relieve their East India ships, settled it again. But they afterwards relinquished it for a more convenient place, which is the Cape of Good Hope. The English East India Company then settled their servants there, and began to fortify it; but being yet weak, the Dutch, about the year 1672, came hither, re-took it, and kept it in their possession. This news being reported in England, an officer was sent to take it again, who, by the advice and conduct of one that had formerly lived there, landed a party of armed men in the night in a small cove, unknown to the Dutch then in garrison, and climbing the rocks got up into the island, and so came in the morning to the hills hanging over the fort, which stands by the sea in a valley. From thence firing into the fort they soon made them surrender. This island has continued ever since in the hands of the English East India Company, and has been greatly strengthened both with men and guns, so that at this day it is secure enough from the invasion of an enemy. The common landing-place is a small bay, like a half-moon, scarce 500 paces wide between the two points. Close by the sea side are good guns planted at equal distances lying along from one end of the bay to the other; besides a small fort a little farther in from the sea, near the midst of the bay; all which makes the bay so strong, that it is impossible to force it. The small cove, where the English officer landed his men when he took the island from the Dutch, is scarce fit for a boat to land at, and yet that is now also strongly fortified.

There is a small English town within the great bay, standing in a little valley, between two high mountains. There may be about twenty or thirty small houses whose walls are built with rough stones. The inside furniture is very mean. The governor has a decent house by the fort, where he commonly lives, having a few soldiers to attend him, and to guard the fort. But most of the houses in the town stand empty, excepting when ships arrive; as the owners of those houses have all plantations farther in the island, where they constantly employ themselves. But when ships arrive they all flock to the town, where they live all the time that ships lie here; for then is their fair or market to buy such necessaries as they want, and to sell off the productions of their plantations.

Their plantations afford potatoes, yams, and some plantain and bananas. Their stock consists chiefly of hogs, bullocks, cocks and hens, ducks, geese and turkies, of which they have great plenty, and sell them at their own prices to the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light clothes, pieces of callico, silks, or muslins: arrac, sugar and lime juice, are also much esteemed and coveted by them.

There is great plenty of mackarel here, which affords elegant repasts to the sailors.

The Company's affairs here are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and storehouse-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed them, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and eminent passengers are welcome. The natives

natives sometimes call the result of their consultations severe impositions: and though relief may, perhaps, be had from the company in England, yet, a gentleman observes, that the unavoidable delays in returning a redress at that distance, does sometimes put the addressers under a hardship; and thinks, that were not the situation of this island very serviceable to our East India ships homeward bound, the constant trouble and expence would induce the company to abandon the island; for though it is furnished with the conveniences of life, yet it has few commodities of any profit to merchants.

In Chapel-Valley was James's Fort, of 10 small guns, which was demolished, and a much larger erected in its stead. There was also a platform of 29 guns, and three at the landing place. Banks's platform had six guns, Rupert's platform 17, and in Lemon Valley, where the Dutch formerly landed, was a platform of six more, all which have received considerable additions. There is no landing to the windward, and all the creeks and bays are secured. There are also alarm guns on the hills.

The chief grain of the island is kidney beans, which are from 8 to 12s. a bushel. A small ox is sold for 6l. and turkeys for a dollar a-piece. The common people subsist chiefly on potatoes, yams, plantains, pulse, and fish; and if they can get flesh once a week, they reckon it good living. The company allow their soldiers salt provisions.

The island produces here and there a drug like Benzoin, and great plenty of wild tobacco on the hills, which the slaves use to smoke for want of the right sort. The inhabitants are supplied with necessaries twice a month out of the company's store, at six months credit. The chief commodities for sale here are cherry brandy, mal and cyder, spirits, beer, Madeira and Canary wines, and Spanish brandy, which may be taken in at those islands.

The Island of St. Helena is thus described in *Captain Cook's* account of his first voyage.

"The island of St. Helena rises out of the immense Atlantic Ocean, is about 1800 miles from the coast of America, and 1200 from that of Africa. It has the appearance of a huge mountain, the foundation of which is probably at the center of the globe. It had formerly volcanoes in several parts of it, as is evident from the appearance of the earth and stones in many places; and it looks like a cluster of rocks, bounded by precipices of immense height. As a vessel sails along the coast, the cliffs hang over her head so as to threaten her instant destruction, and nothing in nature can be conceived more awful than their appearance.

"Close to the sea-side stands the town, which had formerly a church of very indifferent architecture, but it is now little better than a heap of ruins; nor is the market-house in a much better condition. Most of the houses are also constructed in a vile taste.

"As this island is the property of the English East India Company, the inhabitants are not suffered to carry on any trade for their own emolument, but get their livelihood by selling the productions of the island to the crews of the vessels which anchor there for a supply of refreshments.

"The only white inhabitants on the island are subjects of the king of Great Britain. These employ slaves, who transport goods of all kinds from place to place on their heads. The inhumanity of our countrymen to these slaves is a disgrace to those who profess the Christian faith. There are a small number of horses at St. Helena, but they are never employed in draught, there being no such thing as a waggon or cart on the island, though in many places the land is not so steep, but that such carriages might easily be drawn."

Captain Cook, who touched at St. Helena in his second voyage, as well as first, observes concerning it, that "Whoever views St. Helena in its present state, cannot but conceive what it must have been originally, and will not hastily charge the inhabitants with want of

industry; though, perhaps, they might apply it to more advantage, were more land appropriated to planting of corn, vegetables, roots, &c. instead of being laid out in pasture, which is the present mode.

"A new church has been built within these few years, a commodious landing place for boats has been made, and several improvements which add both strength and beauty to the place."

SECTION V.

ISLANDS OF ASCENSION AND ST. MATTHEW.

THE Island of Ascension, lying in 7 deg. south lat. and 13 deg. 10 min. west longitude, was discovered in the year 1508, by Tustan d'Acugna, on his return from the East Indies, who called it Ascension, because he first perceived it on Ascension day. It is about 12 miles long, not above 3 broad, and near 25 in circumference. The whole island is quite mountainous, and almost barren; yet it is sometimes used by our homeward bound East India ships as a place of refreshment. Great quantities of ashes and cinders are found upon the soil, which induces some to imagine that a volcano must have been here formerly. The harbour, however, is exceeding convenient; and some few places on the island are fit for tillage. When the ships touch here, their crews sometimes live upon turtle for a fortnight, and deem it not only pleasant, but salutary food. The goats that run wild here are very lean, and indifferent eating; and the birds, of which there are various kinds, are so extremely bad tasted, that the sailors can seldom use them as food.

On this island there is a place which seamen term the Post Office, and where they leave letters. The method is to put them into bottles, which they closely cork, when the people of the next ship that comes take out the letters, and leave others in their room.

Neither the Portuguese, or any other nation, have thought proper to take, plant, or cultivate this island. It is, however, very convenient for East India ships to call at when they happen to overshoot or miss the island of St. Helena.

The following particulars respecting this island, are related in the account of *Captain Cook's* second voyage. "The island of Ascension shews a surface composed of barren hills and vallies, on most of which not a shrub or plant is to be seen for several miles, but stones and ashes in plenty; an indubitable sign that the isle, at some remote time, has been altered by a volcano, which has thrown up vast heaps of stones, and even hills. An high mountain, at the south-east end of the isle, seems to be left in its original state, and to have escaped the general destruction. Its soil is a kind of white marl, which yet retains its vegetative qualities, and produces a kind of purslane, spurg, and one or two grasses. On these the goats subsist, and it is on this part of the isle where they are found, as also land crabs, which are said to be very good."

While they lay in the road, a sloop, belonging to Bermuda, came to anchor along-side of them. She had sailed but a few days before with 105 turtle on board, which was as many as she could take in; but having turned several more on the different sandy beaches, they had ripped open their bellies, taken out the eggs, and left the carcases to putrify; an act as inhuman as injurious to those who came after them.

Turtle (as Capt. Cook was informed) are to be found at this isle from January to June. The method of catching them is to have people upon the several sandy bays, to watch their coming on shore to lay their eggs, which is always in the night, and then to turn them on their backs, till there be an opportunity to take them off the next day. It was recommended to Capt. Cook to send a good many men to each beach, where they were to lie quiet till the turtle were ashore, and then rise and turn them at once. This method may be the best when the turtle are numerous; but when there are but

but few, three or four men are sufficient for the largest beach; and if they keep patrolling it, close to the wash of the surf, during the night, by this method they will see all that come ashore, and cause less noise than if there were more of them. It was by this method they caught the most they got; and this is the method by which the Americans take them. Nothing is more certain, than that all the turtle which are found about this island, come here for the sole purpose of laying their eggs; for they meet with none but females; and of all those that they caught, not one had any food worth mentioning in its stomach; a sure sign that they must have been a long time without any; and this may be the reason why the flesh of them is not so good as those caught on the coast of New South Wales, where they feed.

ST. MATTHEW,

SO called by the Portuguese, because they discovered it on that saint's day, lies to the north of St. Helena, and to the north-east of Ascension, under the 2d deg. of south lat. It is a desert, though there is a fine rivulet of fresh water that runs through it. Garcias de Loaísa, a gentleman of Biscay, in Spain, who commanded the fleet which the emperor Charles V. caused to be fitted out at the Groyne, to go and conquer the Molucca Islands, having landed at the Island of St. Matthew, found it uncultivated, but full of large orange trees. He found also some poultry there; and on the barks of trees there were inscriptions in the Portuguese tongue, which proved that some of that nation had been there before.

SECTION VI.

THE ISLAND OF GOREE.

THIS island is situated near Cape de Verd, in 14 deg. 43 min. north lat. and 17 deg. 20 min. west longitude, being the only European settlement between the rivers Gambia and Senegal. It forms an excellent road for shipping, and is surrounded by rocks, every where inaccessible, except at a little creek, 120 fathoms broad, and 60 fathoms long, enclosed between two points of land; one of which is pretty high, and called the Point of the Burying-ground; the other is lower, and before it lies a sand-bank, over which the sea beats with great fury. All round this island there is good anchoring, and particularly in the before-mentioned creek, between which and the land, ships may ride in perfect security from the most dangerous surges. This island was yielded to the Dutch in 1617, by the king of Cape Verd, and they built a strong fort upon the north-west part of it: but that fort not being sufficient to prevent an enemy's landing in the creek, they erected another to secure the warehouses. It was taken by the English in 1663, and retaken by the Dutch soon after. The latter, however, did not keep it long; for the French conquered it in 1677; after which they thought proper to fortify it pretty strongly, and to maintain it as a place of consequence. It was, however, taken from them in the glorious year 1759, together with Fort Senegal; of both which captures we shall give a circumstantial account, since they are so intimately blended together as not be related singly without obscuring the whole.

A scheme being formed by Mr. Cumming, a sensible quaker, for attacking the French settlements on the coast of Africa, the ministry determined to carry it into execution.

Mr. Cumming, as a private merchant, had made a voyage to Portenderrick, an adjoining part of the coast, and contracted a personal acquaintance with Amir, the Moorish king of Legibelli, whom he found extremely well disposed towards the subjects of Great Britain, preferring them, on every occasion, to all other European nations, which had exasperated the

French against him; and he declared he should never be easy till they were extirpated from the place. Just at that time he had declared war against them, and used often to wish that the king of Great Britain would send out an armament to reduce Fort Louis and Goree, which the French had erected to defend their factories on that coast, with some ships of force to protect the traders; promising, in such a case, to join his Britannic majesty's forces, and indulge his subjects with an exclusive commerce. At his return to England, Mr. Cumming informed the government of the great advantages which would accrue to the nation from such an attempt. It was, however, taken very little notice of that time; but, at length, all difficulties being overcome, a small squadron was equipped for this expedition, under the command of Capt. Marsh, having on board a body of marines, commanded by Major Mason, with a detachment of artillery, ten pieces of cannon, eight mortars, and a considerable quantity of warlike stores and ammunition. Capt. Walker as appointed engineer; and Mr. Cumming was concerned as principal director and promoter of the expedition. In the beginning of March 1758, this little armament sailed, touched in their passage at the Island of Teneriffe, and, while the ships were taking in the wine and water, Mr. Cumming proceeded in the Swan sloop to Portenderrick, charged with a letter of credence to his old friend, the king of that country. But on his arrival, he had the mortification to find this prince engaged in a new war with a neighbouring nation, and at that time heading his army at a very considerable distance from his capital. One of the chiefs, however, dispatched a messenger to the king, with advice of Mr. Cumming's arrival and design, declaring at the same time, that he would use the utmost expedition in assembling 300 warriors to join the English troops, adding, that he was persuaded the king would send a detachment from his army to reinforce them.

Capt. Marsh, with the rest of the armament, had by this time arrived at Portenderrick, and, without waiting for the Indian forces, which were not yet ready, they sailed on the 22d of April, and the next day, at four o'clock in the afternoon, discovered the French flag flying upon Fort Louis. Capt. Marsh, after having taken a large Dutch ship, richly laden with guns, which lay without the bar, came to an anchor in Senegal road, at the mouth of the river, where he perceived the enemy had posted several armed sloops to defend the passage of the bar, which is extremely dangerous. The captain, however, immediately prepared for landing. All the boats of the fleet were employed to carry the stores into the small craft, notwithstanding the enemy's vessels kept firing on them. As soon as every thing was ready, and the channel discovered, the ships weighed anchor; and at that instant the wind, which generally blows down the river, veering about, Capt. Millar, in the London buss, seized the opportunity, and passing the bar with a full sail, cast anchor on the inside, where he lay all night exposed to the whole fire of the enemy. Next morning he was joined by the other small vessels, upon which a regular engagement ensued, and was warmly supported on both sides. At last the busses, and one of the small vessels, running aground, immediately bulged, and were filled with water. This misfortune obliged the troops they contained to take to their boats, and with great difficulty they reached the shore, where they formed in a body, and were soon after joined by their companions from the other vessels; so that the whole now amounted to 390 marines, besides the detachment of artillery. Expecting to be attacked by the natives, who lined the shore at some distance, as if resolved to oppose the descent, they threw up an intrenchment, and began to disembark the stores, great part of which lay under water. While they were thus employed, the negroes came down in great numbers, and submitted to them, and on the following day they were reinforced by 352 seamen, who passed the bar in sloops, with colours flying.

Their intention was to make an immediate attack on Fort Louis; but this design was prevented by the arrival of two French deputies at the intrenchment, with proposals from the governor for a capitulation. A short time being passed in deliberations, it was agreed, That all the white people belonging to the French company at Senegal, should be safely conducted to France in an English vessel, without being deprived of their private effects; that all the merchandize and uncoined treasure should be delivered up to the victors; that all forts, store-houses, vessels, arms, provisions, and every article belonging to the company in that river, should be put into the hands of the English immediately after the capitulation should be signed; that the free natives living at Fort Louis should remain in quiet possession of their effects, and in the free exercise of their religion; and that all negroes, mulattoes, and others, who could prove themselves free, should be at their option either to remain in the place, or remove to any other part of the country.

The captains Campbell and Walker were immediately sent up the river with a flag of truce, to see the articles signed and executed. Having rowed towards a battery on the point of the island, they lay upon their oars near an hour beating the chamade, but not the least notice was taken of their approach. Being at a loss to account for this strange conduct, they returned to their intrenchment, where they learned that the negroes on the island were in arms, and blocked up the French in Fort Louis, resolving to defend the place to the last extremity, unless they were included in the capitulation. The governor signified this circumstance in a letter to the English commander, telling him, at the same time, that unless the French director-general should be allowed to remain with the natives, as a surety for the performance of that article of the capitulation in which they were concerned, they would suffer themselves to be cut in pieces rather than submit.

This request, however, being readily granted, the English forces began their march for Fort Louis, accompanied by a number of long-boats, in which the artillery and stores had been embarked. On seeing them advance the French immediately struck their flag, and Major Mason took possession of the castle, where he found 92 pieces of cannon, with a very considerable quantity of treasure and merchandize. The corporation and burghers of the town of Senegal readily submitted, and swore allegiance to the king of Great Britain. The neighbouring princes, attended by numerous retinues, visited the commander, and concluded treaties with the English nation; and the king of Bortenderrick, or Legebelli, sent an ambassador from his camp to Major Mason, with compliments of congratulation, and assurances of friendship.

Having left an English garrison at Fort Louis, and placed a sufficient number of armed boats to secure the passage of the bar, the large ships failed to make an attempt on the island of Goree, which lies at the distance of 30 leagues from Senegal. This expedition, however, for want of a sufficient force, miscarried. But the ministry being sensible that the English settlements on the coast of Africa could never be secure while the French kept possession of this island, they fitted out a squadron, the command of which was given to Commodore Keppel, consisting of four ships of the line, several frigates, two bomb-ketches, and some transports, having on board 700 regular troops, commanded by Colonel Worge.

On the 11th of November this armament sailed from Cork in Ireland, and, after a dangerous passage, they arrived at Goree the latter end of December, when the commodore immediately made a disposition for attacking the island. The flat bottom boats for landing the troops being hoisted out, and ranged alongside of the different transports, Mr. Keppel stationed his ships on the west side of the island. A shell be fired from one of the bomb-ketches, which was the signal for the engagement to begin, the great ships poured in their

broadsides without intermission, and their fire was returned with equal vivacity from all the batteries of the island. At length the cannonading from the ships became so severe and terrible, that the French soldiers fled from their quarters, in spite of all the efforts of the governor, who endeavoured to keep them to their duty, which obliged him to strike his colours, and surrender at discretion; upon which the commodore sent a detachment of marines on shore, who disarmed the garrison, and hoisted the British flag on the Island of St. Michael. Two trading vessels, which happened to be at anchor in the road, likewise fell into the hands of the English, with stores, money, and merchandize, to the value of 20,000*l*. This important conquest cost the victors only 100 men, killed and wounded. Commodore Keppel having left a garrison at Goree, and reinforced that of Senegal, returned with his squadron to England.

Goree, however, at present belongs to the French. It was ceded to them by the treaty of peace in 1763; but was again taken by the English in the last war, and restored to them by the peace of 1783.

Though of so much importance to the African trade, Goree is only a small island, extending about three quarters of a mile in length. It is of a triangular form, without wood, and has no water but what the inhabitants catch in cisterns, reservoirs, &c.

Great quantities of gum are brought to this place and Senegal by the Moors and Arabs, and from hence sent to Europe, and other parts of the world. They bring it on camels, bullocks, horses, &c. It is measured in a cubical vessel, called by the Moors *quantor*, and every quintal pays a certain duty. Proper commissaries put it into sacks, and then allow it to be carried to the company's settlements.

The natives of this place and Senegal are in general Mahometans, and they practise circumcision with great rigour. The operation is performed at the age of 15, that the youth may have sufficient strength to undergo it, and be tolerably well instructed in the principles of his faith. The ceremony is never performed in hot weather: the last quarter of the moon is always chosen, through a notion that the operation is then less painful; and the wound cured with more ease. It is done in a beautiful meadow, surrounded by gardens, upon a few boards elevated a little from the ground. The victims are led thither by their parents, succeeding each other according to their ranks, when the priest performs the operation; after which the youth retires smiling, or at least affecting to smile.

SECTION VII.

THE ISLAND OF BUSSI, OR BOISSI; THE ISLAND OF BISSEUR, OR BISSAO, &c.

THE Island of Bussi, or Boissi, is about 35 leagues in circumference, covered with trees, and well watered with several rivulets. The inhabitants are treacherous, wicked, and great robbers; so that it is very dangerous to trade with them; notwithstanding some ships venture in, in order to procure oxen and palm-nuts, which are the only articles they will sell. In the island are two good secure harbours; the one to the north, called Old Port, and the other to the south, called New Port.

The Island of Bisseur, or Bissao, is situated in the same gulph, and is separated from Bussi by a canal about a mile broad. It is near 40 leagues in circuit, and the ground imperceptibly rises to the middle of the island, where are seen the tops of several hills gradually sinking beneath each other, and forming many intermediate vallies, in which the waters gather and form rivulets that run into the sea. The country is fruitful, well cultivated, and abounds with trees, particularly fine large orange trees, which the Portuguese and Negroes, whose habitations are intermixed, take care to plant about their houses. Mangoes are found in great plenty, especially

especially about the sea-shore. The only town here is that of the Portuguese, the houses of which surround the parochial church, and the convent of St. Francis; but it has been considerably increased in inhabitants by means of the factory which the French have settled near it. Besides this, there is no cluster of houses, or even huts, in the whole island, which even merits the name of a village; notwithstanding which the island is divided into nine provinces, eight of which are governed by officers appointed by the sovereign, and each of these takes the title of king, that they may together give that of emperor to their common master. The ninth province this petty emperor revenues to himself as a kind of patrimony.

The inhabitants of this island are likewise called *papels*, but have a language and customs peculiar to themselves. They are gross idolaters. Their chief idol is a little figure they call *Shinah*, but it is no easy matter to know what he performs. Besides this, each individual takes for an idol whatever the imagination may suggest. Consecrated trees are either deemed deities, or the dwellings of deities; and to these they sacrifice bullocks, dogs, and cats, which they take particular care to fatten, and wash clean, before they kill; and after having killed them, they spill part of their blood round the foot of the tree, and sprinkle the branches of it with the rest. The victim is then cut to pieces, and, if a bullock, the emperor, officers, and people, take each a part, and carry it home in order to eat it, leaving their idol only the horns, which are hung up upon the tree, and there remain till they happen to drop down, or rot to pieces.

At the death of the emperor, the best beloved of his wives, and most useful of his slaves, are killed and buried near the place where the emperor's corpse is to be interred, that they may go with him, to serve and divert him in the other world. The body of the emperor is put into a kind of coffin made of reeds, and very neatly wove. Then four of the strongest lords carry it with great solemnity to the burial place, where being arrived, a very whimsical ceremony succeeds; for the nobles amuse themselves, for a considerable time, by tossing his majesty's coffin, body and all, into the air, and catching it again, without letting it fall to the ground. When they are pretty well tired of this sport, one of the great lords extends himself on the ground, at full length, and the rest once more throw up the coffin, body and all, but do not, as before, attempt to catch it, when the royal corpse falls on the prostrate lord, and almost beats the breath out of his body. After having thus been overwhelmed with the royal weight, he is immediately acknowledged emperor. It appears by this ceremony that the kingdom is elective, though one of the royal family, either the son, brother, or nephew, of the deceased, must be chosen; and you may be sure the pretenders to the crown do not fail to bribe with presents those bearers of the royal bier, who may properly enough be styled electors.

The Portuguese have an indifferent fort upon this island, mounting 20 guns.

The Island of Boulam lies at the mouth of Rio Grande, or the Great River, which, by means of this island, divides itself into two branches. Boulam is surrounded with woods, beyond which the country is very fine, well cultivated by the Negroes of the Bissagoe Islands, who come hither to sow millet, rice, and other grain, and return home after they have reaped their harvest. The ground rises almost imperceptibly for two leagues from the sea shore, to the foot of some hills, which serve as a base to higher mountains, which stand in the center of the island; yet these mountains are neither steep or craggy, being covered with fine lofty trees. Through the many vallies between these hills and mountains run several considerable rivulets, which the Negroes assert to run constantly, even in the dry season of the year.

The mouth of Rio Grande, or the Great River, to the south-east of the isle of Boulam, is about two leagues

broad, and having run some leagues from east to west, it makes a great elbow, or winding, and turns to the north-east, till a little higher it is divided into two arms by the Island of Bissagoe. Both sides of the Rio Grande, or the Great River, are well peopled, and covered with lofty trees of several sorts, which the Portuguese call to build barks. There is one particular tree which they call *michery*; it is easily worked, and never infested with worms. It is full of an oily moisture, excessively bitter, which probably keeps the worms from it. Trials have been made of this wood in several parts of Europe, Africa, and America, and it has always been found of equal goodness. These trees never grow very tall, few of them being above 22 feet high; but then they are very thick.

The negroes here are tall, strong, and healthy. They live upon shell and other fish, palm-oil, and palm-nuts, chusing rather to sell to the Europeans the millet, rice, and other produce of the earth which they reap, than to keep them for their own use.

Formosa is the most easterly of all the Bissagoe islands, but is deserted. La Gallina (or Hen Island, thus called from the great number of hens the Portuguese found there) and Canabac are very populous and fruitful, and have plenty of good water. Calagut is the most considerable of these islands, being about six leagues long, and two broad. Its soil is very good, and produces millet, rice, and all kinds of pulse, besides orange and palm trees, and many others. This island, with those of Carache, Canabac, and La Gallina, are the only ones where the Europeans may trade with some security. They trade, however, sometimes at the other islands, but they must be extremely cautious; and yet, after all their precaution, they will be robbed and murdered if they venture to go ashore.

SECTION VIII.

THE ISLANDS OF ANNABON, ST. THOMAS, PRINCE'S, AND FERNANDO PO.

ANNABON was discovered on a new year's day, and on that account named Annabon by the Portuguese, as that expression signifies the *good*, or the *new year*. It lies to the east of St. Matthew, in 2 degrees south lat. and 5 deg. 10 min. east lon. being near 210 miles from the coast of Loango, and is near 30 miles in circumference. Here are two high mountains, which being continually covered with clouds, occasion frequent rains. Here are several fertile vallies, which produce plenty of bananas, potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, tamarinds, and cocoa-nuts; besides which the island abounds with lemons, citrons, nuts, figs, Turkish corn, and millet. Here are also oxen, cows, hogs, goats, fowls, pigeons, with plenty of fish. The island likewise produces great quantities of cotton. The governor is a Portuguese, who has very few white people with him. All the other inhabitants are blacks, who are, nevertheless, very submissive to the governor, and zealously attached to the Roman Catholic religion. On the south-east of the island there are two rocks, one of which is very low, and almost even with the surface of the sea; the other is much higher, and very large. On these rocks are a multitude of birds, so tame that they suffer themselves to be taken with the hand. The water is so deep between these two rocks, that ships may easily pass between them. On the same side of the island there is a very good watering-place, the water running down from the mountains into a valley full of orange and other fruit trees; but it is a difficult matter to come at that water, because of the violent breakings of the sea; and the negroes have made an intrenchment of stone there, from which they can very much inconvenience those who go thither for water. The road for shipping is on the north-east side of the island, where they may anchor from 7 to 16 fathoms water, on a sandy ground, close to the land, over against the village where the above-mentioned intrenchment is. When the

the inhabitants cannot prevent a descent, they leave their houses, which are only of timber and sand, and retire into the mountains. They are very well armed. The revenue of this island consists chiefly in cotton: the negroes gather it, and, after they have cleaned it, they send it into Portugal. Here are also some civit cats in the mountains, which yet afford but little profit. The inhabitants are poorly clothed. The women go bareheaded, and have also the upper part of the body naked, wearing only a piece of linen wrapped round them, which reaches from the pit of the stomach just below the knee.

St. Thome, or St. Thomas's Island, is directly under the equinoctial line, and about 240 miles north-west from the city of Loango. The air here is so exceedingly hot, that Europeans soon die, though negroes will live to near an 100 years of age. From its equatorial situation the days and nights are always equal. The only rainy months are March and September, when the sun passes vertically over the island; but at other times they have nocturnal dews, which refresh and fertilize the soil. It produces less sugar than it formerly did; but it is extremely fruitful in wheat, wine, millet, rye, barley, melons, cucumbers, figs, ginger, red parsnips, cabbages, turnips, lettuces, radishes, sage, beet,

parsley, &c. Olive, peach, and almond trees, thrive well in timber; but excessive heat and moisture prevent their bearing of fruit. Partridges, quails, ouzels, parrots, &c. abound here; so doth the sea with excellent fish, and large whales. A mountain in the center of the island has its top covered with a cloud, which moistens the trees, and greatly nourishes them. The higher the sun ascends above the horizon, the more moisture does the cloud afford. The Portuguese built a town called Pavaosan, with a harbour towards the continent. This town is exceeding pleasant; and the inhabitants barter sugar for wine, cheese, leather, and cloaths.

Prince's Island is nearly under the equator, the latitude being only 1 deg. 30 min. It is woody and mountainous, abounding in fruit, rice, Indian corn, sugar, herbs, roots, &c. It also contains cattle, hogs, and goats; but the vast quantities of asses are both troublesome and dangerous, as they wantonly destroy many of the fruits of the earth, and will attack, and tear to pieces, a man, if they find him single and unarmed.

About 30 miles to the westward of the continent is the Island of Fernando Po, in 4 deg. north latitude. It is near 30 miles long, and 20 broad. The produce and inhabitants do not differ from those of Prince's Island, and it likewise belongs to the Portuguese government.

C H A P. XXII.

ISLANDS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.

SECTION I.

THE ISLAND OF BOURBON,

SO called in honour of the family of Bourbon, is situated in 21 deg. south lat. and 54 deg. east long. It is of an oval form, and upwards of 100 miles in circumference. It was first discovered in the year 1545, by a Portuguese, of the house of Mascarinhas, who gave it the name of Mascarin, in honour of his family, and stocked it with hogs and goats; but he afterwards thought proper to abandon it. In the year 1613 Capt. Castleton, an English naval officer, touched here in a ship named the Pearl; and from the journal of his voyage, written by John Tatton, master, we shall make the following extract.

"In 21 deg. south latitude they saw an island west-south-west, and south-west by west, five leagues distant, being very high land. At six o'clock at night they anchored on the eastern side of it, a mile from the shore, in ten fathoms, fine black sand, which you meet with from forty fathoms to four fathoms close to land. The boat being sent ashore found infinite numbers of great land tortoises, as big as a man could well carry, which were very good meat. The north-east point of this isle is very high and steep; and a little to the south-east of the point is low land, where runs a fine water, like a river, and though a boat cannot go in, yet it is a very good place to water in. At some distance from the shore the isle appears like a forest, whence the author (John Tatton) called it England's Forest; but the others named it Pearl Island, from the ship.

"This island was uninhabited, but abounded with land-fowl, both small and large doves, great parrots, and the like, and a huge bird, the bigness of a turkey, very fat, and so short winged that it could not fly. The birds of this kind were all white, and in a manner tame, as are all the other fowls, because they have not been scared with shot. The sailors knocked them down with sticks and stones. Ten men might take fowls enough to serve forty for a day. Some of the company, walking up into the island, found a river, and a pond well stocked with mallards, and wild geese, besides an infi-

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nite number of great eels, as good as any in the world. If struck with a pike, or any other thing, they would run not above two or three yards off, and then lie still again, so that they might be easily taken. The author observing they were larger than any he had ever seen, weighed one, and found its quantity 25 pounds. They were also the sweetest fish, in his opinion, that can be eaten; whence he concluded, it was as good a place as the world could afford for refreshing; neither was there any danger about the island but the shore itself."

This island, however, never retained the names of England's Forest, or Pearl Island, mentioned here to have been given it, but continued to be called by the name of Mascarin till the year 1654, when M. de Flacourt took possession of it in the name of the king of France, and gave it the name of Bourbon, which it still retains, in compliment to the royal family upon the French throne. He left there a few of his people and slaves, who, not liking their situation, were afterwards brought away by an English ship. The French, however, again formed a settlement there in 1674, and now have three considerable towns on the island, viz. St. Paul, St. Denis, and St. Sufanna; but the governor usually resides at St. Denis.

According to the latest accounts of this island, it abounds in all kinds of refreshment, and the air is particularly excellent. The French East India ships touch here to take in water and provisions, for the roads are good for shipping; but there is no harbour in the whole island. Here is plenty of wood and water; and the face of the country is beautifully diversified with hills and dales, pastures and woods, and watered by excellent springs and rivulets. In one of the mountains there is a small volcano, which discharges fire, and fills the neighbourhood with a bituminous matter; and the flames are perceived in the night time at the distance of 25 leagues.

Some of the trees here are fit for building vessels. The isle of Bourbon likewise produces the shrub that bears coffee, the tamarisk, cocoa, cotton, aloe, and ebony tree. The black ebony here is less esteemed than the yellow, and the wild coffee, which is very plentiful, is exceeding good. Many of the trees and plants pro-

duce odoriferous gums; and here are plenty of oranges, lemons, tobacco, palms, white pepper, &c. The island likewise abounds with black cattle, hogs, goats, and boars, the flesh of which is admirable on account of their feeding on tortoises; many kinds of fowls, pigeons, turtle-doves, parrots, &c. The surrounding seas, and intersecting rivers, rivulets, &c. supply the inhabitants with abundance of fish; and on the shore are found great quantities of ambergris, corals, and beautiful shells. Here are no crocodiles, snakes, musketoos, or any of those vermin, or other venomous creatures, which are so troublesome in most other parts of the torrid zone.

A French writer, in speaking of this island, says, "The best animal found here, whether for taste or wholesomeness, is the land tortoise; and the most agreeable fruit is the anana. This tortoise is of the same figure with those in Europe, but of a very different size. They say it lives a prodigious time, that several ages are required to bring it to its full growth, and that it will live several months without food. They have kept some young ones in the island, which, at the end of twenty years, increased in bulk only a few inches.

"The bat of this island is very singular, and might be called the flying fox, since it very much resembles this animal in size, hair, head, ears, and even teeth. The female has two teats, and, under each wing, a bag to carry her young in. The length of the wings is about four feet from one extremity to the other. The flesh is so good to eat, that they go a hunting for them with the same eagerness that we go a shooting partridges."

"But though this island is so agreeable, it does not come near to the beauty of the coasts of Java and Sumatra, which are covered with orange, cocoa, and other fruit trees, with a number of rivulets that water them: hills adorned with delightful groves, forests for ever-green, villages and towns shining with all the rural graces, concur to render those coasts the most charming in the world."

Vines have been successfully planted here of late years, and now considerable quantities of different wines are annually produced. But the greatest inconveniencies here arise from the terrible hurricanes and storms, which are not only exceeding violent, but very frequent; hence shipwrecks are common, and the most horrid devastations become familiar to the eye; so that the following animated description has been often realized on the coasts of this island.

The sea grows white, and rolling was afar,
Like heralds, first denounce the wat'ry war.
This seen, the captain soon began to cry,
Strike, strike the topsails, let the main-sheet fly,
And furl your sails: the winds repel the sound,
And in the speaker's mouth the speech is drown'd;
Yet, of their own accord, as danger taught,
(Each in his way,) officiously they wrought.
Some stow the oars, or stop the leaky sides;
Another, bolder yet, the yard bestrides,
And folds the sails; a fourth with labour laves
Th' intruding seas, and waves eject on waves.
In this confusion, while their works they ply,
The winds augment the winter of the sky.
The cries of men are mix'd with rattling shrouds;
Seas dash on seas, and clouds encounter clouds:
At once from east to west, from pole to pole,
The forked lightnings flash, the roaring thunders roll;
The lashing billows make a loud report,
And beat her sides as batt'ring-rams a fort.
Thus seas impell'd by winds, with added power,
Assault the sides, and o'er the hatches tow'r;
The planks, their pitchy coverings wash'd away,
Now yield, and now a yawning breach display;
The rearing waters, with a hostile tide,
Rush through the ruins of her gaping side;
Mean time, in sheets of rain, the sky descends,
And ocean, swell'd with waters, upwards tends.

No star appears to lend a friendly light;
Darkness and tempest make a double night;
But flashing fires disclose the deep by turns,
And, while the lightnings blaze, the water burns,
An universal cry resounds aloud;
The sailors run in heaps, an artless crowd;
Art fails, and courage falls; no succour near;
As many waves, as many deaths appear.
One weeps, and yet despairs of late relief;
One cannot weep, his fears congeal his grief,
But stupid, with dry eyes expects his fate.
One with loud shrieks laments his lost estate,
And calls those happy whom their fun'ral wait.
This wretch with prayers and vows the Lord implores,
And e'en the skies he cannot see adores.
That other on his friends his thoughts bestows,
His careful father, and his faithful spouse.
The cov'rous worldling, in his anxious mind,
Thinks only on the wealth he leaves behind.
Toss'd with the seas, press'd with the pond'rous blow,
Down sinks the ship within th' abyss below;
Down with the vessel sink into the main
The many, never more to rise again.

A French officer, who very recently visited both this island and the Isle of France, or Mauritius, tells the following story concerning one of the pirates who used to infest this island. "The viceroy (says he) of Goa came one day to anchor in the road of St. Denis, and was to dine with the governor. He had scarcely set his foot on shore before a pirate ship, of 50 guns, anchored along-side his vessel, and took her. The captain landed forthwith, and demanded to dine at the governor's. He seated himself at table between him and the Portuguese viceroy, to the latter of whom he declared that he was his prisoner. Wine and good cheer having put the scamen in good humour, M. Desforges, the governor, asked him at how much he rated the viceroy's ransom? "I must have (said the pirate) a thousand piastres." "That's too little (said M. Desforges) for a brave fellow like you, to have for a great Lord like him: ask enough, or ask nothing." "Well, well then, I ask nothing, (replied the generous corsair,) let him be free." The viceroy instantly re-embarked and set sail, happy at having escaped on such good terms. The pirate afterwards settled on the island, and was hanged, a considerable time after an amnesty had been published in favour of his companions, and in which he had failed to get himself included. This injustice was the work of a counsellor, or judge, who was desirous of appropriating the spoils of the pirate to his own use."

The same writer has also given us the following description of the original inhabitants of this island, with observations on the present state of them.

"The manners of the first inhabitants of Bourbon were very simple: the greater number of the houses were not made to shut; a lock was a curiosity. Some people even put their money in a tortoise-shell over their door. They dressed in blue cloth, went barefooted, and lived upon rice and coffee. They imported but little from Europe; content to live without luxury, so they lived without want. They joined to this moderation the virtues that ever attend it; good faith in commerce, and generosity in their proceedings. As soon as a stranger appeared, the inhabitants came to him, and, as a stranger, offered him their houses.

"The wars in the Indies have made a change in their manners. The volunteers of Bourbon distinguished themselves by their bravery; but the manufactures of Asia, and the military distinctions of France, thereby got footing in the island. The children, richer than their parents, require to be treated with more consideration. They have now no enjoyment of an unnoticed good fortune, but seek pleasures and honours in Europe, in exchange for domestic happiness and the quiet of a country life. The attention of the fathers being chiefly fixed upon their sons, they send them to France, from whence they seldom return, hence it is that, in this island,

island, there are more than 500 marriageable girls who are likely to die without husbands."

The whites who inhabit this island are estimated at 5000, and the blacks 6000. Their principal traffic is with France, to which place they export the various commodities of the country.

The chief town in this island is called St. Denis, and is the residence of the governor and council. It is a small place, and does not contain any thing remarkable, except a redoubt, built of stone, and a draw-bridge.

SECTION II.

THE ISLAND OF MAURITIUS, OTHERWISE CALLED THE ISLE OF FRANCE.

THIS island is situated in 18 deg. 30 min. south lat. and 56 deg. 8 min. east long. It was discovered by the Dutch in 1598, who called it Maurice Island, in honour of Prince Maurice, their stadtholder.

Mauritius is between 3 and 400 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 150 miles in circumference. The form is oval, and, from the many high mountains, torrents of water rush down with great impetuosity, and form various rapid rivers and rivulets, which are foul near where they fall, particularly in the rainy season, but grow clearer as they turn farther from the mountains, and are as transparent as crystal before they disembogue themselves into the sea.

Thus the pure limpid stream, when foul with stains
Of rushing torrents, and descending rains,
Works itself clear, and as it runs refines,
Till by degrees the floating mirror shines,
Reflects each flower that on its border grows,
And a new heaven in its fair bosom shows.

This island contains two ports, the principal of which is to the south-east, where the Dutch settlement formerly was, the remains of the buildings belonging to which are still seen. This port may be entered with ease before the wind; but it is very difficult to get out of it, as the gales generally blow to the south-east. The other port, named Port Louis, is situated to the north-west, and is smaller than the former; but the town belonging to it is deemed the capital of the island, tho' it is situated in the most disagreeable part of it. This town, denominated the Camp, is built at the bottom of the port, and towards the opening of a valley. The valley itself is encircled by a chain of mountains, whose summits are rocky, without trees or bushes, but covered with a dungy herb, which makes the country appear black like a colliery.

The town itself, called the Camp, is built with tolerable regularity; the houses are of wood, and only one story high: they stand separate from each other, and are all surrounded with pallisadoes. The streets, however, are not paved or planted with trees; nor are there any fortifications except towards the sea, where the place is defended by the fort called Fort Blanc, and a battery on the little Island of Tormellieres.

The Isle of France is watered by above sixty rivulets, some of which deserve the name of rivers, but others do not contain any water in the dry season. The whole have their sources principally in the mountains. A traveller, who was lately on this island, says, "Every thing here differs from what is seen in Europe; even the herbage of the country. The soil is almost every where of a reddish colour, and mixed with veins of iron, which are frequently found near the surface, in the form of grain, the size of a pea. In the drier parts, especially near the town, the ground is very hard; it resembles pipe clay; and to make trenches of it, they cut it with axes as they do lead. As soon as it rains it becomes soft and sticky, notwithstanding which they have not yet been able to make it into bricks." There is no real sand in the soil, but the ground is every where rocky, except where artificial means have been used to

make it otherwise. The rocky substances, in general, are of an iron grey colour, contain a great deal of iron ore, and vitrify in the fire.

Productions, Vegetable and Animal, &c.

ON the Island of Mauritius is a turf which grows in beds near the sea shore: it is very thick and elastic: its leaf is very small, and so sharp pointed as to prick peoples cloaths. The cattle will not touch this herb, but love to browse upon a kind of dog's-grass, which grows in many parts, and puts out little hard branches from the joints. The best herb, however, is one that grows on the windward side of the island: it has largish blades, or rather leaves, and is green and tender all the year.

Here is likewise a shrub that yields a kind of fruit, whose husk might be turned to singular advantage; a prickly asparagus; a mallow with small leaves; a thistle with yellow flowers, which yield seeds that are poisonous; a kind of sweet-scented lilly; a bad scented gilliflower; and sweet-basil, which is of a healing quality.

The plants called raquettes, which bear yellow flowers, are used on account of their sharp prickles, in making hedges. The velantier is a plant whose odour is quite agreeable at a distance, less so as you approach it, and perfectly nauseous when you come quite near it: and here is a kind of bramble that bears a nut, the kernel of which is bitter, but efficacious in many disorders of the body.

Balm shrubs, and a bastard kind of potatoe, are common, as is pannier grass, which latter serves for physic and cloathing; for it is used medicinally, and likewise to make thread. There are likewise many other shrubs, which have not particular names assigned them.

The Europeans seem to have been particularly attentive to the improvement of the vegetable system in this island, and that in all its variety. By means of culture, it produces, in great abundance, the different articles which serve either to gratify the palate or the sight. The inhabitants have every thing desirable both in the kitchen, fruit, and flower gardens; a consideration that must equally conduce to health and pleasure.

The only quadrupeds natural to this island are monkeys and rats. The latter are very destructive to the corn and fruit, among which they make terrible havock.

The birds here called corbigeaux are reckoned the best game on the island, but they are very difficult to catch. There are parrots, paroquets, two sorts of tropic birds, pigeons, and black birds, which are a kind of game, and much admired by the natives.

There is a kind of amphibious crab that make burrows under ground, like moles; they run very fast, and when attacked will snap their claws by way of defence.

The most extraordinary creature here is that called Bernard l'Hermite: it is a kind of lobster, whose hinder part is not provided with a shell; but it instinctively lodges itself in empty shells which it finds on the shore. They run together in great numbers, each with its house after it, which it abandons for a larger one as it advances in growth.

There are great numbers of insects in this island, the most destructive among which are the grass-hoppers. Ants are also numerous, and very troublesome in the houses, as it is a difficult matter to secure the provisions from being destroyed by them.

Here are likewise wasps, spiders, various kinds of flies, centipedes, and lizards. Moths, or small butterflies, so infest the houses after dark, that they are obliged to put their candles into glass cylinders. These flies draw into the houses a very beautiful lizard; it is about five inches long, and has bright and sparkling eyes: it climbs along the walls, and lives upon flies and other insects: they are not in the least mischievous; but, on the contrary, so tame, that if sugar is thrown on the ground, they will immediately come and take it.

The greatest enemy to the insects is the spider, some of which have bellies as big as a nut, with large paws, covered with hair. Their webs are so strong, that even small birds are sometimes caught in them. They are of particular use in destroying the wasps and centipedes.

There is an insect here called *formicaleo*, which is particularly destructive to the ants; and another named *cancrelas*, of which there are three sorts: the most common are about the size of a cockchafer, of a reddish brown; another sort of them is flat, and of a grey colour. The houses are greatly pestered with them, especially in wet weather; and they are very destructive to furniture and books.

The temperature of the climate is so favourable to the propagation of insects, that in a short time the fruits would be eaten up by them, and the island itself become uninhabitable, but most of the fruits of the meridional countries are clothed with a thick rind, and afterwards with a skin, a very hard shell, and an aromatic bark, like the orange or citron; insomuch that the flies can introduce their eggs into very few of them only. Many of these noxious animals are at perpetual war with each other. The *formicaleos* lay snares for the ant; the green fly pierces the *cancrelas*; the lizard hunts the butterfly; the spiders spread nets for every insect that flies; and the hurricane, which rages once a year, annihilates at once a great part both of the prey and of the devourers.

As the Europeans have transplanted a variety of articles in the vegetable system into this island, so have they, by importation, propagated numbers of animals. Among these are horses, oxen, sheep and hogs. The horses are small and very dear. The oxen are indifferent; but the sheep and hogs exceeding good.

They have various kinds of poultry; but the most common are ducks and fowls, the former of which were brought from Manilla, and the latter from Europe. They have also a small species of fowl from China, whose flesh is exceeding delicate.

The wild fowl are pintadoes, Chinese pheasants, pigeons, and three sorts of partridges: these birds always roost on the tops of trees, to secure themselves from being destroyed by the rats.

Among the small birds is a very beautiful one called the Titmouse, which has a number of white spots on the wings. There is also another brought from Bengal, called the cardinal, whose head, neck and belly, at a particular part of the year, is of a lively red, and the rest of the plumage of a party-coloured grey.

The most propagating bird in this island is that called the martin, which, in size, colour, and aptitude to talk, greatly resembles the English starling. It will perch upon, and peck at beasts, without fear; but its chief prey is the grass-hopper, which it pursues with an unwearied perseverance. They always fly in pairs, and constantly assemble at sun-set in very considerable flocks. Their flesh is very indifferent eating, notwithstanding which the shooting them is prohibited.

There are two sorts of birds brought from the Cape, one of which is called the gardener's friend. It is of a brown colour about the size of a large sparrow, and lives upon worms, snails, and small serpents, which it not only eats when pressed by hunger, but makes an ample store of by sticking them on the prickles of the hedges. The other Cape bird is much like the English sky-lark, and is the only inhabitant of this island that is heard to sing. They were first brought here as curiosities, but some of them escaped to the woods, where they bred so fast, that they are now exceeding numerous.

In the ponds and lakes are two sorts of foreign fish, one of which is the Chinese gold-fish: these thrive equally well as in their own climate; but as they increase in bulk, they lose their beauty. The other is called Gourami, and was imported from Batavia. It is a fresh-water fish, about the size of a salmon; but the taste of it is far superior, and it is reckoned the best fish in India.

We shall now mention an animal of a very singular nature, which M. Buffon calls the great Madagascar bat, yet as it is common not only to the island of Madagascar, but to the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius, and particularly predominates in the latter, we think proper here to describe it. But it is necessary to premise, that the bats seen in Great Britain are inoffensive, incapable from their size of injuring mankind, and not sufficiently numerous to incommode them: but here there is a larger race of bats that are truly formidable: a single one is a dangerous enemy; but when they unite in flocks they become really dreadful. Des Marchais says, that if the inhabitants of the African coast were to eat animals of the bat kind, as they do in the East-Indies, they would never want a supply of provisions. They are so numerous, that when they fly they obscure the setting sun: early in the morning they are seen sticking upon the tops of trees, and clinging together in great heaps. The Europeans often amuse themselves in shooting them, and the negroes are expert in killing them: they, however, look on the bat with horror, and would not eat it if they were starving.

This animal is about a foot long, from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail; and its extent, from the tip of one wing to that of the other, is about four feet. It has large canine teeth; that is to say, four cutting teeth above, and four below. The nose is black and sharp, the ears large and naked, and the talons crooked, strong, and compressed sideways; but it is without a tail. These animals differ in colour, some being of a bright red, others of a brown, and others of a dark dusky colour. It resembles the common bat in its internal conformation, in the form of its wings, and the manner of its flying. When these creatures repose, they stick themselves upon the tops of the tallest trees, and hang with their heads downwards; but at other times they frequently settle upon animals, and even upon man. They devour indiscriminately fruits, flesh and insects; and are, in particular, so exceeding fond of the juice of the palm-tree, that they will intoxicate themselves with it till they drop to the ground. At night they may be heard in the forests, at the distance of more than two miles, with a most horrid din, but they usually retire at the approach of day. Nothing is safe from the depredations of these noxious creatures; they destroy fowls and domestic animals, if they are not properly secured, and frequently fasten upon the inhabitants themselves, attacking them in the face, and inflicting very terrible wounds. It is very probable, as M. Buffon observes, that the ancients took their idea of harpies from these fierce and voracious creatures, as they both seem to concur in many parts of the description, being equally cruel, deformed, greedy, and uncleanly.

Persons have been attacked by these creatures, and have sometimes passed from a sound sleep into eternity; for the bat is so dexterous a bleeder, as to insinuate its sharp-pointed tongue into a vein unperceived, and to suck the blood till it is satiated, at the same time fanning with its wings, and agitating the air, which, in these hot regions, lulls the sufferer into a still sounder sleep. It is therefore dangerous to repose in the open air, or to leave open any entrance to these noxious animals.

Whales are frequently seen to the windward of this island; but they are not so large as those in the northern seas.

Some of the fish near this island are poisonous, and others delicate and nutritive. There is abundance of shell fish of various kinds and qualities.

The most generally esteemed fish for eating here is a kind of turbot, called the water-pullet, the fat of which is green, and exceeding delicious. The hogfish has a head which greatly resembles a pike, and upon its back are seven points as large as its body, the pricks of which are very venomous: a membrane, streaked with brown stripes, and resembling the wing of a bat, unites them.

The

The paroquet-fish is so called from its exact resemblance to the bird of that name; for it is green, hath a yellow head, and a kind of white crooked beak. The fishes of this species likewise go together in numbers, like the birds called paroquets.

The eels are of the conger kind: they are in general eight feet long; to the full as thick as a man's leg; exceeding voracious; and capable of killing any person they attack.

Here are numbers of lobsters, cray-fish and crabs: the two former are of a fine blue colour, marbled with black; and the latter is principally grey. One species hath the eyes in two long tubes like telescopes, which, when not in use, are deposited in grooves along-side of the shell.

Among the shell-fish here is one of a very singular nature; for the usual order seems to be reversed; the animal is on the outside of the shell, the whole appearing as a shapeless mass, soft and membranous, in the middle of which is a single bone, or shell, smooth and arched.

The tulier, an enormous fish of the lobster kind, is common here. The shell is supposed to be the largest which the sea produces.

With respect to other marine productions, Mauritius, or the Isle of France, is surrounded by madre-*repes*, a kind of vegetation of stone formed like a plant or shrub. They are so exceedingly numerous that many of the rocks seem formed of them only. Among the madre-*repes* that adorn and diversify the sea shores, are some exactly resembling cauliflowers, others cabbages, wheat-sheaves, trees, &c. Many are of the coral kind, and exhibit a prodigious variety of colours; but these are, in general, so brittle, that it is not worth while to send them to Europe. Star-wort is sometimes seen, and ambergris was formerly plentiful, but very little of it is found at present.

Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THE people of France, who first settled on this island, were simple, industrious, and hospitable: but when its importance was known, others came hither from France from the same motives, and with the same views, as induce Europeans in general to repair to foreign settlements. The leading principle of the emigrators was avarice, to which they sacrificed both humanity and justice; and the same principle is still predominant among those who may be deemed the European inhabitants of the island.

The people, in general, are greedy of gain; and the desire of accumulating riches continually increases the population of the island: but was you to hear the discontented voice of the people, you would conceive that it must, in a very short time, become again uninhabited; for every man declares he will go away the ensuing year; and some of them have made this declaration for 20 or 30 years successively; yet they seem fixed to the spot, and remain still to make the same declaration for years to come.

These people have no taste for arts or literature. Their houses are mere cabbins of wood, which may be easily removed from one place to another upon rollers. The windows have neither glass or curtains; and the houses have but little furniture, and that little very plain.

In proportion to the number of people, few here are married. The people, in general, are immoderately fond of dancing; and the women in the plantations seldom or ever come to town but at Easter, to confess, or when a ball is announced.

The mode of travelling, particularly for women and children, is in palanquins, carried by slaves; for the badness of the roads, and unevenness of the streets, will not admit of the use of wheel carriages. The women are pale, but well made, and in general handsome. They have great vivacity, and seem to possess minds capable of improvement. Their most usual dress is

muslin, trimmed with rose-coloured taffaty. They are extravagantly fond of their children; yet being ignorant themselves, they wholly neglect their education.

The black inhabitants of the island are either Indians or Negroes. The Indians are Malabars, or Malayans, who come from Pondicherry, in order to article themselves as servants for a certain number of years. These occupy a spot called the Camp of the Blacks. In general they work at trades, and are sober and thrifty. They are clad in long muslin gowns, wear a turban on their heads, have gold rings in their ears, and silver bracelets on their wrists. Some few serve the principal and richest people as running footmen. These being equipped with a handsome cane, and a poignard at the girdle, affect great state, and deliver the most trivial messages with an air of importance.

The Negroes, or slaves, are brought from Madagascar. These are neither so black, or so badly featured, as the natives of Guinea, but resemble the Europeans in feature, and in complexion incline to a copper colour. They are in general active, ingenious, grateful for favours, faithful when well used, and have a quicker sense of an insult done to any one they love, than of any personal injury to themselves. After having been purchased at Madagascar, they are landed, with only a rag round their loins, at the Isle of France, where being sold, it frequently happens that husbands, wives, brothers, sisters, friends, lovers, &c. are cruelly torn asunder, and bidding each other a long farewell, are driven in the greatest anguish to the respective plantations for which they are bought. Some, upon these occasions, have been known to turn frantic, and do mischief, which is imputed to the horrors they conceive at the apprehensions of the dreadful fate to which they imagine they are doomed; for it is a prevailing notion with some tribes of the Madagascar Negroes, that the white people intend eating their flesh, making red wine of their blood, and gunpowder of their bones: not are these strange ideas to be wondered at, considering the innumerable barbarities of the whites, which have given the blacks occasion to suggest them.

In the plantations, every day, as soon as the dawn begins to peep, a signal of three smacks of a horsewhip calls these unhappy wretches to work, when they toil through the day almost naked, broil in the meridian sun's excessive heat, and experience the extremities of hunger and thirst; for their food is only maize, manioc root, or cassiva root, and those but scantily allowed them; and though water may be had for nothing, yet their tyrannical task-masters will hardly allow them time to refresh themselves therewith. The most trivial offence is punished by a most dreadful flagellation; after which an iron collar, with three sharp spikes, is put round the unhappy offender's neck, and he is again sent in that condition to pursue his labour. Yet, after this inhuman treatment, the poor wretch, on his return home in the evening, though, perhaps, ready to faint with the fatigues of the day, and the anguish of mind and body, is not permitted to retire to rest till he has repeated a prayer for the prosperity of his worthy master, and has returned him the most respectful thanks for his wonderful goodness! a refinement upon cruelty, which certainly must double the anguish of the stripes originally given, and could be exacted by none but minds infernally bent. This dreadful treatment extends to each sex indiscriminately, the females having no more mercy shewn them than the men.

Some years since the French government, for the relief of these miserable wretches, instituted a code of laws, called the *Code Noire*, or *Black Laws*; and these statutes enact that they shall receive no more than 30 lashes for any offence whatever; that they shall have meat once a week, a new shirt annually, and not to be obliged to labour on Sundays. These regulations, however, have not had the proper effect, for the planters have hitherto disregarded the laws of the mother country, and followed only the dictates of their own inhumanity.

When a stranger seems struck with horror at these fights, the inhabitants coolly tell him, "You don't know the blacks, Sir. They are such gluttons that they will steal victuals whenever they have an opportunity; and are so idle that they have not their masters business at heart. And the women are so inattentive to their families, that they would sooner procure an abortion than bring children into the world." These are their curious arguments in excuse for their excess of barbarity; when it must appear obvious to every thinking mind, that if they steal food, it is because they are almost famished; if they do not their masters business, it is because they are treated too cruelly to think kindly of them: and if the women are not fond of bringing children into the world, it is because they would not have their offspring treated with the inhumanity they themselves continually experience.

Love is said to be the only passion which keeps the Negroes from absolute despair; this cheers their drooping spirits, and invigorates them to go through their daily labour. For the object of their passion they despise dangers, and laugh at difficulties. When a Negro is in love, he will in the evening forget the fatigues of the day, and with alacrity go many miles, and run many hazards, to converse but a few minutes with his beloved mistress.

When overwhelmed by despair, a Negro will sometimes attempt to get back to Madagascar in any little boat he can steal, and run the hazard of being drowned rather than continue in slavery. If this expedient fails, he flies to the woods, where he secrets himself in the most obscure recesses, from whence he sometimes makes excursions, to gratify his revenge, and obtain plunder.

Troops are frequently sent to ferret the absconded slaves from their lurking places; and sometimes the principal people form parties of pleasure, as they phrase it, to hunt them; when a Negro is put up like a beast, and hunted down, or shot, like any wild animal; then his head is cut off, and carried away in triumph, the unexampled trophy of the most atrocious cruelty.

Upon the whole, the inhabitants of this island are, in general, represented in a very odious light; but notwithstanding the depravity of the people, the place is deemed a most important and improveable spot.

SECTION III.

THE ISLAND OF MADAGASCAR.

THIS is the largest of all the African islands, and is situated between 10 and 26 deg. south lat. and 43 and 51 deg. east long, 300 miles to the eastward of the continent of Africa, being upwards of 800 miles in length, and 250 in breadth. The sea is very rough between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or passage, through which European ships, in their voyage to and from India, generally sail, unless prevented by storms.

Few islands in the world are more pleasant, fertile, and desirable, than Madagascar. It abounds in sugar, honey, vines, fruit trees, vegetables, gums, corn, cattle, and fowls; likewise precious stones, gold, silver, copper, steel, tin, &c. &c. It presents to the view an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and open plains, watered by numerous rivers, which are well stored with fish. The air is rendered cool and healthy by the constant breezes from the sea.

There is a fountain of hot water in the island, esteemed a sovereign remedy in nervous disorders, and taken inwardly, cures asthma, and expels wind.

The animal productions of this island, as well as those of the vegetable kind, are very numerous, as well as various.

This island is divided into many provinces or districts, inhabited by people of different complexions and religions, some white, some tawny, and some black; some Mahometans, and some Pagans. These several pro-

vinces are perpetually at war with each other, not from a desire of subduing each others territories, but in order to plunder each other of their goods and cattle, and to make slaves of their captives.

Persons, Customs, Manners, &c. of the People of Madagascar.

THOSE of a deep tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and religious rites: but by what accident, or at what period of time, they came to this island, so remote from their own country, is not known. They are represented, by French writers in particular, as flattering, deceitful, and perfidious in the extreme; but others speak of them with more liberality and candour. They are tall, nimble, and have a proud gait.

Wild people are found in some parts of this island, who let their hair and beards grow, go almost naked, inhabit thick and unfrequented woods, avoid meeting their fellow natives, live upon wild cattle, fruits, roots, honey, locusts, &c.

The people of Madagascar have but a very slender knowledge of commerce, and knowing but little of arts or sciences, apply themselves principally to agriculture, the breeding of cattle, or hunting of game. Their country, was it not so greatly neglected, might be rendered extremely opulent. From the number of silkworms, with proper management, silk might be made a staple commodity; but the views of the people extend only to the absolute necessities of life, such as common provisions, mean habitations, and a little wearing apparel. All may be said to be architects, according to the custom of the country, because every individual is capable of erecting a hut for himself. The different mechanics are smiths, carpenters, turners, &c. There are also rope-makers, and numbers of fishermen. The chief tools of the carpenters are a plane, a wedge, and a rule. The fishermen use draw-nets, well-baskets, hooks, and harpoons; and exchange their fish with the inland inhabitants for rice, yams, roots, cotton, and other necessities. Some, however, they dry, to serve as occasion requires.

The women alone are employed in spinning, and make various sorts of stuffs from flax, as also threads from the barks of trees.

Agriculture is practised with less trouble in Madagascar than in Europe, because the manner is more simple. No plough is employed in the tillage of land; an axe for felling the limbs of trees, a bill for lopping off the branches, and an implement called faugali, for grubbing the roots and weeds, are their sole instruments. The arms and branches of trees, when dry, by being burnt to ashes, greatly enrich the ground; and this soil is afterwards proper for the production of yams, rice, &c.

These people are much addicted to singing and dancing: the women, in particular, are very fond of singing, and compose verses extempore, which, though not strictly poetical, shews an aptitude of genius, and ready turn of wit. Their songs are either panegyrics on the remarkable actions of their ancestors and heroes, of an amorous turn, or of a satirical nature. They have three kinds of musical instruments, constructed in a manner peculiar to themselves.

The riches of the inhabitants consist in cattle, which the men look after, and in fields of rice and roots, which the women sow. Gold and silver serve only for ornaments. They make paans and carpets of cotton of divers colours: and as they have no looms, but only sticks laid on the ground, which they raise by turns to make the woof, they cannot work very fast.

Here are cities, towns, and villages, nobles and slaves. The cities contain houses, or rather huts, and are surrounded with ditches six feet deep, and as many broad, with pallisades within on the banks of the ditch. The donac (for so they call the lord's house) is built with

with boards, raised about six feet above ground, and covered with leaves. The other habitations are so low that one cannot enter them without stooping. The towns are encompassed only with stakes drove into the ground; and the villages have neither stakes or ditches. Four Negroes take up a hut on their shoulders, and carry it where they please. When a lord visits another, the person visited lends the other one of his wives, which the visitor likes best.

Their household furniture consists only of rush mats, which are either of a yellow or red colour, and are neatly made and strung. The floors on which they lie are covered with these mats, without bed, bolster, quilt, or any sort of covering, and the pillow is only a log of wood. Their cloaths, sambers, girdles or saravohits, cotton, effects, and all ornaments are kept in baskets; and oils for the body and hair in earthen pitchers. Their kitchen furniture consists of earthen pots, called villangues louvies, safes, monangees, and fines, wooden dishes and spoons, dried gourds or calabashes to hold water, knives, gridirons, mortars to pound rice, troughs, and winnowing fans, with large vessels for honey wine. The leaves of dates, twelve feet long and four broad, are used instead of napkins, and small portions serve as plates. These are spread upon mats on the ground, for neither tables or chairs are used.

The Negroes go naked, excepting their middles, which they cover with a linen called lamber: and some of the women use saravohits, or drawers, with an aezrn, or long robe without sleeves, hanging down to the ankles, and a piece of linen before, sewed at both ends like an apron. Some of them go without any covering on their head or feet, except the inhabitants of Mangahabei, as the men in that province wear a square cap, and the women a hood, pointed at top, and hanging down upon the shoulders. The dresses are of different colours and names.

Polygamy is practised throughout the island, and the people in general are exceeding incontinent, which may be owing to the extremes that actuate either sex; the men having too much freedom, and the women being under too much restraint.

The Negroes here have no other marriage ceremony than agreeing to cohabit together; but their masters have a ceremony in being joined, or married, to the head wife; but their other wives they take with as little form as the Negroes do theirs.

The ceremonials practised at funerals are as follow. The relations wash and cleanse the body of the defunct, and then adorn it with the most costly ornaments which the defunct wore when living. It is then wrapped up in a mat, in order to be carried in that manner to the grave. The head of a woman's corpse is usually embellished with a kind of cap. The heads and beards of men of rank, when defunct, are clean shaved. Previous to the time of burial, the corpse lies in state for some days, during which time a light is continually burnt at its feet; and all the relations, friends, and slaves, frequently surround the corpse, and make the most dismal lamentations. Having tired themselves with bewailing, the women fall a dancing, and the men have recourse to warlike exercises. At length they all surround the body again, call the dead by his name, very gravely expostulate with him for dying, and pathetically demand whether he had not every thing that could satisfy him in this life, such as beautiful and faithful wives, dutiful children, loving friends, industrious slaves, a sufficiency of gold, silver, iron, cattle, &c. It may not be improper to observe, that this burlesque method of howling over, and interrogating the dead, is not peculiar to the inhabitants of Madagascar, as many other nations have the same custom; and even in Europe some persons retain these absurd ceremonials at this present time.

On the day of interment the corpse is carried to the burying-place, which is named Amounoque, in a coffin made of hollow trunks of trees, curiously closed toge-

ther, and there it is deposited six feet deep, under a strong hut, in which are left plates, dishes, apparel, rice, tobacco, &c. that the dead may want no necessary accommodation.

If a person of distinction dies at a distance from home, his body is burned upon the spot; but his head, having been previously cut off, is carried home, and interred in a proper sepulchre, with the usual funeral rites. But persons slain in war, who have been hastily buried in or near the field of battle, are, in times of peace, again dug up, and re-buried in the usual form, provided the space from the time of interment is not so considerable as to admit of an almost total putrefaction.

The inhabitants of Madagascar hold the memory of their ancestors in the utmost esteem and veneration; their greatest and most solemn oaths being to swear by the souls of their predecessors, or the virtues of their parents.

When any person is sick, the nearest relations apply to the ombiasse, or priest, who goes by night to the amounoque, or sepulchre of the father, or, if the father is still living, to that of the grandfather of the afflicted person; then making a hole in the monument, he places a kind of cap upon the aperture, and begins his incantations with several grimaces, invoking the spirit of the deceased to take pity on the person disordered, and restore his helpless progeny to health and vigour.

The common diet of these islanders is cow's milk, rice, and roots. They sometimes roast large pieces of beef, with the hide on. They drink water and honey-wine. But they have neither bread or grape-wine. The honey-wine is a composition of three parts of water to one of honey, which they boil together, and skim, after it is reduced to three fourths. They afterwards put it to work in large pots of black earth made in this island. This wine has a very pleasant tartish taste, but is too lucious. The wine made of sugar-canes is still more unwholesome.

The smallness of the number of inhabitants of this island in proportion to its extent may be imputed to the horrid cruelties exercised on their children, in strangling them in the birth, or sacrificing them to demons, at the instance of the ombiasses or priests, who hold an uncontrouled power over their minds.

Like the ancient Romans, these people have what they call their lucky and unlucky times, by which their actions are in general governed.

The same language is spoke throughout the island, though differently pronounced in different provinces.

The inhabitants of Madagascar are tolerably expert at casting up sums. Like the Arabians and Europeans, they reckon from one to ten, and after ten add the number one, as far as twenty.

With respect to their weights and measures, they use none higher than a drachm: for as they weigh no articles whatever, gold and silver excepted, drachm weights are deemed sufficient, all other commodities being sold by way of barter or exchange.

Madagascar paper is made with fewer instruments and engines than the European. The bark of the tree Avo is boiled two days in good lye, made of the ashes of the same tree, till it becomes soft and supple, then washed in clear water, beat to a proper consistency, and afterwards poured on mats made of exquisitely fine reeds, twitted and regularly joined together, in order to be drained, and become paper. After this it is placed on a leaf of ballisier, oiled with menachil, to dry in the sun. Each dried leaf is afterwards dipped in a decoction of rice, to prevent it from remaining spongy; then being dried once more, it becomes smooth, even, and fit for use. Their ink is extracted, by way of decoction, from the wood called arandranto, which is likewise made use of by the principal people for building. The extract being mixed with verdigris, becomes exceeding black. The pens are made of bamboo, and are cut to the same size, fashioned after a similar manner, and rendered almost as transparent as European quills.

The trade of this island is rather of a domestic than foreign nature, as the natives have very confined ideas, and imperfect notions of foreign traffic. Among themselves they barter commodity for commodity, as no such thing as currency is established throughout the whole island. Even if they obtain any gold or silver coins from the Europeans, who sometimes touch here, they immediately melt them down, in order to convert them into ear-rings, bracelets, &c. The domestic trade is of this nature: the people of the cotton provinces take care to cultivate that article, and then take it to the provinces which abound in cattle, rice, &c. Having trucked or bartered commodities, the wants of each are supplied; for those who have plenty of provisions are by these means supplied with cloathing, and those who can easily procure apparel in their own country are furnished with provisions, in which their own provinces might be deficient. Thus the exchange of the produce of one province for that of another is the whole of their domestic, or inland trade.

The foreign trade, or rather traffic, which some of the inhabitants carry on with the European ships that sometimes touch here, consists of exchanging fresh provisions, sapphires, rubies, emeralds, cornelians and other precious stones found in the country, &c. for yellow wares, hard wares and small wares of all sorts, looking-glasses, beads, fire arms, coral of any size or colour, pierced through for stringing, &c.

Hence their riches consist in the wares and commodities which they thus procure; in the bills, hatchets, knives, lances, iron and steel spades, lammers, &c. which they make; in the slaves they take in war, or steal in times of peace; in the cattle which they breed; and in the lands which they cultivate.

Most of the princes or sovereigns of the different territories in this island are related to each other, and so are their great lords and inferior subjects, by continual intermarriages; yet they are perpetually quarrelling with and waging war against each other; private family disputes often occasion open ruptures, and the resentment of an individual will induce some thousands to commit hostilities. These domestic wars are pursued with more rancour and hatred than a war with a foreign enemy would be; for when relations or friends differ, they entertain a greater implacability against each other than strangers, when they happen to be at enmity. This sentiment is finely illustrated in the following lines by William Whitehead, Esq. poet laureat, in his ode for the new year, performed before his majesty on the 1st of January 1778.

When rival nations, great in arms,
Great in power, in glory great,
Fill the world with war's alarms,
And breathe a temporary hate,
The hostile storms but rage awhile,
And the try'd contest ends;
But ah! how hard to reconcile
The foes who once were friends.

Each hasty word, each look unkind,
Each distant hint that seems to mean
A something lurking in the mind,
Which almost longs to lurk unseen.
Each shadow of a shade offends
Th' embitter'd foes who once were friends.

That pow'r alone, who fram'd the soul,
And bade the springs of passion play,
Can all their jarring strings controul,
And form on discord concord's sway.
'Tis he alone whose breath of love,
Did o'er the world of waters move,
Whose touch the mountains bends,
Whose word from darkness call'd forth light,
'Tis he alone can reunite
The foes who once were friends.

In war their engagements are seldom regular: they chiefly depend on surprize and ambuscade, and sacrifice courage to stratagem. When the prospect of advantage offers, they usually assemble privately, act with the utmost caution and privacy, gain the enemy's frontiers by forced marches in the night, and attack them suddenly and unexpectedly: if success attends their arms, they commit the most cruel ravages: if they meet with an unexpected repulse they retreat with the utmost precipitation. But good or bad success are equally fatal to the country; if they are fortunate they destroy all before them as they advance; if unfortunate, they lay the country waste as they retreat.

Sometimes the prince of a territory gives notice to the lords, who are his subjects, to assemble their forces separately, and to march by different routs to a certain place of rendezvous, in order to come suddenly upon, and attack the towns of their enemies, which they surround, and advance to with the most dreadful shouts; and if successful, they massacre all they meet with in them, sparing neither age or sex. After this sanguinary heat is over, if they meet with any other of the adverse party, or overtake any fugitives, they make slaves of them; but usually put to death those who are allied to the chiefs, fearing, if they should survive, they will at some future time become formidable.

If they are threatened to be attacked by others, they change their place of residence, drive their women and cattle into the most private recesses, or places that are difficult of access, and consequently may be easily defended. Thus their passions prompt them to plunder each other, and their perpetual dangers insensibly give them policy; but during these ravages all parties think themselves right: the prince thinks it his duty to prevent any neighbours from becoming too powerful for his own people, and fancies it incumbent on himself to crush such aspirers: the people deem it their duty to obey their prince, who has their good at heart; all see through the medium of their passions, and fancy the means just if the motive or proposed end is so. It is self-love and reason at strife, and the improper use of either occasions all their miscarriages.

Two principles in human nature reign;
Self-love, to urge; and reason, to restrain;
Nor this a good, nor that a bad we call,
Each works its end, to move or govern all:
And to their proper operation still,
Ascribe all good; to their improper, ill.

Self-love, the spring of motion, acts the soul;
Reason's comparing balance rules the whole.
Man, but for that, no action could attend,
And, but for this, were active to no end:
Fix'd like a plant on his peculiar spot,
To draw nutrition, propagate, and rot;
Or, meteor-like, flame lawless through the void,
Destroying others, by himself destroy'd.

Modes of self-love, the passions we may call:
'Tis real good, or seeming, moves them all;
But since not ev'ry good we can divide,
And reason bids us for our own provide;
Passions though selfish, if their means be fair,
Lift under reason, and deserve her care;
Those, that imparted, court a nobler aim,
Exalt their kind, and take some virtue's name.

Sometimes parties of only 40 or 50 are sent to plunder and destroy the lesser villages and hamlets, and these light detachments are called *sanvoue*. If opportunity serves, the towns are reduced to ashes; but if they are under any apprehension that the flames will exasperate the neighbouring inhabitants, who might immediately pursue them, or cut off their retreat, they satisfy themselves with only plundering the towns without burning them.

Their weapons are different in different parts of the island. Some make use of a dart, with an iron point long